The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 7, 1891.

The Week.

MR LEECH, the Director of the Mint, is, we believe, quite sound on the coinage question, which is his legitimate field, and his testimony has had considerable weight in the recent discussions about silver. This fact makes his recent irruption into the Treasury Department, with a suggestion that the Government should meet its present difficulties by suspending specie payments, all the more unfortunate because he will not be listened to hereafter on any subject with anything like the same attention as formerly. His proposal to use for current expenses the money now held in reserve under the act of Congress to maintain the redeemability of the greenbacks is, in reality, a proposal to suspend specie payments, for, if the fund were once dissipated, there would not be the smallest chance of its restoration. The whole body of currency cranks would unite in resisting its restoration. They would feel that in this way they were demonstrating the power of the Government to make money for the people. They would enjoy, too, immensely the discredit it would throw on gold, which they hate, just as they love silver. To have the Director of the Mint, of all men in the world, recommend such a policy, will therefore delight them. They will say that here is a man, who probably knows gold better than any one else in the country, recommending its expulsion. He has fathomed its meanness, and fickleness, and distrust of the masses, and its worship of aristocracy, and its unwillingness to go West, and therefore proposes to kick it out.

Our readers may remember Mr. Blaine's contention that he got his right to police Bering Sea from Russia when she ceded Alaska to the United States. It filled the whole of his last great despatch to Lord Salisbury. The *Tribune* was absolutely dazed by the argument, and was short of epithets to describe its splendor and force. The *Journal de St.-Pétersbourg*, in an evidently semi-official paper, now demolishes it from top to bottom, stone by stone. It is as elaborate a piece of work as has ever been performed on our nimble Secretary by critic or enemy. It says that Russia never ceded any rights in sea or land in Bering Sea, except such as rested on the ordinary law of nations, because she never had any to cede, and that the ukase taking in one hundred miles of high sea along the coastline as a little private fishing-ground, which Mr. Blaine has made so much of, was, to speak familiarly, all "poppycock," was never put in force, or meant to be put in force. It winds up by asserting that "the pretensions of the United States in this matter are in absolute contradiction to the most elementary principles of international law."

The *Tribune's* explanation, which has doubtless been received from Washington, is that it is plain that the *Journal de St.-Pétersbourg* does not speak for M. de Giers, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and that it does not know anything about the matter in hand, and that "the power of nations to extend their jurisdiction over the open ocean for a lawful purpose is recognized by all nations, and has been frequently practised by England," and "has the sanction of all accepted writers, for it is both just and necessary." There is a curious mixture of fatuity and slyness in this. The power of nations to extend their jurisdiction *over their own vessels and citizens* "on the open ocean" for lawful purposes has never been questioned by any writer. But the present controversy is about the power of nations to extend their jurisdiction over foreign vessels on the high seas, for any purpose whatever not recognized by special agreement, like the suppression of the slave trade. No "accepted writer" has ever in recent times recognized any such power, as our sly friend in Washington well knows. Who is his "accepted writer," and what is the page of the work? The *Tribune* also revives the theory of an ocean game law, which enables a government to pursue and recapture on the high seas in foreign vessels the young of wild animals which may possibly have been born in its own territory; but this is too absurd for discussion.

The notification which the Chinese Government has sent to Washington that it is unwilling to receive Henry W. Blair as American Minister, ought to make the President ashamed of himself for appointing him to the place, but it probably will not. If the United States had been searched to get the most conspicuously unfit man for the Chinese mission, Blair would have been selected after competitive examination as distancing all others. He had been rejected as Senator by his own State after a career in the Senate which had made him a butt for the jeers of the whole country, when the President, for no other reason than that he was "out of a job," appointed him Minister to China, whose people he had brutally assailed in an ignorant way peculiarly his own. The appointment was, in fact, the most striking illustration we have had of the disgraceful use which our Government habitually makes of its foreign missions, giving them as rewards for political service—"plums" for politicians. President Harrison and Secretary Blaine have done this in a more wholesale manner than almost any of their predecessors, using all the first class missions to reward their own supporters, in the press and out of it, without regard to their fitness for the posts to which they were assigned. Blair happened to be only a little more unfit than some of the others, and, unluckily for him, the barrier of language has not been sufficient to prevent the Chinese Government from obtaining an accurate idea of his personality.

Nevertheless, "I should," says the great man, "have proceeded to China, Emperor or no Emperor, but for the order of Secretary Blaine recalling me." In other words, the Chinese would have had to get rid of him by force if they did not want him, had not Secretary Blaine interfered. Blair knows nothing about the diplomatic distinction between a "persona grata" and a "persona non grata." It is all one to him which he is, in his diplomatic career, as long as he can draw the salary. It is fair to Blair to say that he is not as absurd in this view as he seems. It is a view which grows quite naturally out of our mode of filling diplomatic places; but, of course, when it gets into the brain of the born natural, it finds funny expression. When a broken-down politician seeks a foreign mission, it never occurs to him that he is sent abroad to maintain good relations between his own Government and that to which he is accredited. The appointment comes to him solely as a reward for past services to the party; and when any foreign Power refuses to receive him because he is unfit, he feels towards it as he would feel towards a "darned Mugwump" who had opposed his confirmation by the Senate. Blair now says he is going to Japan, which "will suit him equally as well if not better." "The Japanese Mission," he says, "is as satisfactory both as to the character and dignity of the country *and the salary*." We have italicized this last consideration because we are sure that Blair, great a fool as he seems externally, really regarded it as the main chance. But how will the Japanese feel about taking New Hampshire's and China's leavings?

The Democrats in the Michigan Senate, with the help of the Patrons of Industry, have passed the bill which went through the House some time ago providing for the choice of Presidential electors by districts next year, instead of in a single block, as heretofore. As the signature of the Democratic Governor is assured, it is now certain that Michigan's fourteen votes in the Electoral College of 1892 will be divided between the two parties. The coalition of Democrats and Patrons in the Senate followed up the passage of this bill with one making a new division of the State into Congressional districts, which will go through the strongly Democratic House without any difficulty. Under the old apportionment during the past decade, the Democrats have never carried less than two of the eleven districts (their number in 1888), and have gone as

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high as five in 1886, six in 1882, seven in 1884, and eight in 1890. Under the new apportionment of the twelve Representatives which the State will now have, the Democrats count confidently upon securing six, even if the Republicans have a majority of the votes in all the districts, as in 1884 and 1888; and they also hope to carry one of the two large districts which will choose the electors at-large.

The Nebraska Legislature also had before it during its recent session a bill providing for the choice of Presidential electors by districts, but it failed to pass. The same policy has been urged in the Ohio Legislature, which is now controlled by the Democrats, but at last accounts it was hardly expected that it would be adopted. Wisconsin is still another State where the system might have been introduced, as the Democrats controlled both the Executive and Legislative departments, but it was not even mooted, we think—certainly not pushed with any zeal. Perhaps the reason was, that the Democrats are so hopeful of carrying the State and securing all the electoral votes next year, that they preferred to take their chances of getting the whole number under the old system than to adopt a new one under which the Republicans would be sure to have several. It is not unlikely that Wisconsin will be a close State in 1892. It gave Harrison 21,321 more votes than Cleveland in 1888, but last fall elected a Democratic Governor by a plurality of 28,320. The issue on which the contest turned in 1890 was a purely State one, arising out of a controversy over the teaching of English in the schools; but the shrewdest Republican managers fear that some of their old allies among the Germans and other foreign-born voters who deserted them last year, will remain permanently in the Democratic party. However the Presidential contest may result, it is probable that the Democrats will secure the Legislature, and the United States Senatorship that goes with it, as they have a considerable majority among the holding-over members of the upper branch, and have redistricted the State so that the Republicans cannot reasonably hope to elect enough of their party to overcome this advantage.

Massachusetts continues to reap advantages from having a wide-awake Democrat in the Executive chair. Gov. Russell's latest service to the State is rendered in a message which he has sent to the Executive Council, protesting against the payment of an impudent claim for $14,000 which has been put in by one Davis for his alleged services as "legislative agent" of Massachusetts at Washington in securing the passage by Congress of the Direct-Tax Bill. The contract was made by the Republican Governor and Council a year ago, and if Mr. Brackett had been reëlected last fall, the bill would doubtless have been paid without any fuss about it. But Gov. Russell points out that the act of Congress refunding the tax itself provided "that no part of the money hereby appropriated shall be paid out by the Governor of any State or Territory or any other person to any attorney or agent, under any contract for services now existing or heretofore made between the representative of any State or Territory and any attorney or agent"; that if Davis really rendered any services, which is disputed, they must have been in the way of lobbying, and fall under the decision of the United States Supreme Court, in the case of Trist vs. Child, that such services were illegitimate, and, considered in connection with the pecuniary interest of the agent at stake, contrary to the plainest principles of public policy; and that the contract under which he was to be paid only in case of success falls within a decision of the Massachusetts Supreme Court, that "an agreement by which, in consideration that an attorney should prosecute suits in behalf of his client for certain sums of money, in which he had himself no previous interest, it was agreed that he should keep one-half of the amount recovered in case of success, and should receive nothing for his services in case of failure—is unlawful and void." In view of these facts, the Governor suggests that the Attorney-General be asked whether the contract is legally binding upon the Commonwealth, adding his own opinion that, "if said contract is illegal, because champertous, against public policy, or for other cause, I am of the opinion that the Commonwealth is under no obligation, moral or equitable, to recognize the claim of Mr. Davis."

Mayor Grant's last appointments are apparently much worse than the former ones, and still further confirm Mr. Hewitt's predictions as to Tammany's aims in taking charge of the city government. We have never in the history of New York had such a list of municipal officers as Mayor Grant has now given us. The appointment of "Barney" Martin as Commissioner of Jurors is a lower depth by far than was reached or attempted even under Tweed, and has a significance which will be perceived more clearly by and by than now. *It means the provision of better protection in the courts for Tammany office-holders and members of the Tammany committees than is now to be had, and better means of avenging or punishing the enemies and critics of Tammany than now exist.* It means the cessation of such interferences with the organization as the presentment of the Grand Jury against the Sheriff's office as administered by Grant, and as the indictment of the Excise Commissioners and of the ruffian Barker. It means, in short, a more efficient control by Tammany of the machinery of justice. It probably means, too, greater terrors for those who venture to expose or criticise the doings of the conspirators in the public press. It is, in fact, considering who and what "Barney" Martin is, and what the work he is now set to do, the boldest stroke Tammany has yet made.

We do not say all this by way of condemnation of the Mayor. In making these appointments he is simply exercising, in the way he was expected to exercise them, the permission and authority given him last fall by 146,000 voters of this city, out of a total registry of 244,970. Of these, 116,581, by voting directly for him, said in effect that he was the kind of Mayor they liked, and that they hoped he would give them, in his second term, the same kind of city officers he had given them in his first, and if possible worse ones. The remaining 30,000, by staying away from the polls, said, in effect, that they cared very little about city government; that, on the whole, they thought him a better Mayor than any other that offered, and did not object to his filling the public offices with his old "pals" and cronies.

The adjournment of the French Chambers over Easter without having taken definite action on the report of the Tariff Committee gave opportunity for an immense number of public and organized protests against the proposed new tariff. The *Journal des Économistes* has given up a great deal of space in its last two issues to the recording of such protests, and altogether they go far towards justifying Lord Salisbury's remark at the Associated Chambers of Commerce dinner, that in France the Government was more strongly protectionist than the people. Especially noteworthy is the action of the Lyons workingmen in joining their employers in protesting against a measure professedly designed to benefit the laboring men of France. The great silk-manufacturers and exporters put in their protest some time ago, but the protectionist orators said that the employees would take a different view. Another protest of real intellectual weight is that of various associations of writers and artists, who declare that the proposed narrow policy will lead to reprisals which will result in the injury of French literary and artistic producers. Sardou's name is signed for the Society of Dramatists. As showing a certain international solidarity of interest in the whole question, we note the resolutions adopted by the Consumers' League of Bordeaux, which, after vigorously protesting against the schemes of French "mac-kinlé'sme," "offered congratulations, in the person of the eminent ex-President Cleveland, to the free-traders of the United States, for the great victory won over American *mac-kinléisme* at the November elections."

The Clitheroe case, in which the Court of Appeal denied Mr. Jackson's right to compel his wife to live with him, is still the subject of fierce discussion in England. Mrs. Jackson is publishing in the newspapers, in self-defence, a history of her matrimonial life, which, however, contains nothing new, and the religious world is greatly excited over the decision, as in some manner, not clearly explained, weakening the marriage bond. The only serious result of it so far is the declaration of some justices of the peace that they will hereafter refuse, as useless, the separation order which the law now allows them to make on the application

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of wives who charge their husbands with ill treatment or failure to support them. These justices say that as the wife, under the Jackson judgment, can leave her husband whenever she pleases, the trial of these applications would be now a mere farce. This has led to some very sharp remarks on the justices by the Lord Chancellor and Lord Esher, who shared in the judgment, at one of the non-judicial sittings in the House of Lords—an unprecedented occurrence, we believe. They said that they had nothing to do with the effect of their judgment on the separation orders, and that the observations of the justices were very unbecoming. If anybody is to blame in the matter, it is Parliament, which recently, by the "Weldon Act," deprived the courts of the power to enforce decrees for the "restitution of conjugal rights," by imprisonment, and failed to provide any other sanction, so that these decrees are now an empty form. Lord Esher remarked, sarcastically, that he never knew what "restitution of conjugal rights" meant, and had never met any one who did; but, whatever it meant, the Lord Chancellor and he, sitting in appeal, were quite satisfied that when the Legislature took away from the courts the power of punishing denial of conjugal rights with imprisonment, it never meant to hand the power over to the husband, and let him lock his wife up until she surrendered. If this state of things weakens the marriage bond, it is for Parliament to supply the remedy. The ferment the affair has excited is very curious, but hardly more curious than the English horror of marriage with a deceased wife's sister, approval of which by an Englishman many of the clergy look on as a sign of great moral weakness, on all sorts of subjects.

The London *Spectator* has an interesting article on "Sensational Trials," in which it gives a wonderful account of the interest excited by the Hurlbert case. It says that during the week in which it was going on "Mr. Hurlbert's conduct was discussed in clubs ten times as much as Mr. Quinton's. [Quinton was the British Commissioner killed in Manipur.] It is not too much to say that throughout London on Monday afternoon foreign affairs and Parliamentary disputes were alike forgotten, and that the single question on the tongue of all men, cultivated and uncultivated alike, was, 'How has the verdict gone?' nobody even stopping to explain about what verdict he inquired." It then goes on to show the greater sensationalism of such trials than of any novels that authors venture to write. "No popular writer in England would venture to depict a person such as Capt. Verney is charged with being, and will, we heartily hope, prove himself not to be; while the most daring of French or Russian analysts of secret crime would have hesitated before the surprise involved in Mr. Hurlbert's successful defence—that he once had in his service a secretary who personated him through months of evil adventure, wrote 150 letters in handwriting exactly like his employer's, and then vanished into the impenetrable cloudland of the United States."

No comment on the Hurlbert case is adequate, however, which does not treat the trial as a climax to his whole career in England. His defence was simply the crowning curiosity of his life in that country. We trust some biography—better than all, some autobiography—of him will yet be written, for it will be a very fascinating contribution to modern literature. He, an almost unknown foreigner, and without one of the usual guarantees of respectability from his own country, obtained in a year or two the hearty welcome of the most exclusive circles of London society, became a valued contributor to the English press, and finally a much-prized authority on the most burning question of British politics, and imposed himself on the *Spectator* as a pious American Catholic who was sickened by the sinfulness of his fellow-Catholics in Ireland. It was this immense success, accomplished through sheer force of social agreeableness and audacity, which prepared him for that wonderful *coup* which has so startled the British Isles, the invention of "Wilfrid Murray." He felt that he had his finger and thumb on the throat of the British chicken and could cram down anything he pleased. As a London authority on America, or professor of America, as we might say, he was the successful rival even of Squire Smalley, and poisoned the happiness of this personage by his still readier access to "great houses," where he was many times as amusing as the Squire, and vastly more improving in his conversation. We should think enterprising publishers would pursue Mr. Hurlbert night and day for a contract for a work entitled 'England as I Found It, and as It Found Me.'"

The scarcity of farm laborers; a phenomenon particularly noticeable throughout New England, and the crowding of cities with men almost starving for the want of work, do not appear to be confined to the United States. According to a writer in the *Nineteenth Century*, they exist in Australia, where the demand for labor to develop the immense agricultural resources of the country is very pressing. There, as here, a disproportionate growth of rural and urban populations has taken place. Australian laborers, like their American brethren, have a strong repugnance for life in the country, even with the assurance of plenty of work at good wages and an abundance of fresh air and light in their dwellings. "We saw the unemployed in Sydney," writes an agent of the English Emigration Society, giving a glimpse of this unattractive trait of Australian labor, "marching about by hundreds, . . . demanding of the Government six shillings a day without piecework, because to offer less would be, as they termed it, 'a degradation of labor,' . . . and many of them declining it because, when provided, it was a few miles up the country." The unfavorable reception in Australia of the proposed scheme of Baron Hirsch to assist Russian Jews to emigrate to that country was to have been expected. Australian labor regards with no favor any step that might increase the competition among its adherents. A few years ago it adopted the policy of exclusion, and so potent has it been at the polls and in legislatures because of the extent and thoroughness of its organization, that it has succeeded in enforcing its view. It has repealed the State-aid immigration laws; it has secured the adoption of other legislation shutting out the Chinese and the natives of the Pacific islands, so much needed to work on railroads and on sugar plantations in the tropical and subtropical parts of the continent, where the climate is so unfavorable to the European laborer that he sickens and often dies; it has, in fact, spread abroad unfounded reports as to the disadvantages of the country to people contemplating emigration. The consequence of this policy has been, as the author of an essay in the recently published work, 'A Plea for Liberty,' points out, the slow growth of population, and its actual decline in the mining and agricultural districts, steadily diminishing exports, and the neglect or decay of innumerable profitable employments.

It has all along been believed that the wild-cat financiering now so much in vogue in Brazil was mostly a private affair of the speculators, and that the administration of the public Treasury was conservative and safe. But late revelations go far towards destroying this confidence. The account published in the *Jornal do Commercio* of the excessive number of contracts and subventions entered into by the Minister of Agriculture and Public Works showed that, if they were all to be carried out, an amount of money would be called for equal to about eight times the entire annual revenue. Of course they will not all be carried out; some of the contracts have already lapsed or been cancelled, and more will be. Yet it gives a shock to public credit to find them even contemplated on such an enormous scale. Following this has come the revelation of some very questionable methods on the part of the Minister of Finance. He was charged with having quietly paid out the gold reserve that guarantees the Government paper currency, after the manner suggested as possible for Secretary Foster. This he denied, though in a highly ambiguous fashion, and in the face of a debt statement that seemed to warrant the charge. Whatever the merits of that controversy, Minister Barbosa has been simply overwhelmed in debate with a former Secretary of the Treasury. The latter has shown that the accounts passed over to the Treasurer of the Revolution by the Treasurer of the Empire have been completely fuddled by the former, so that an actual surplus of about $10,000,000 was converted into a deficit of $12,000,000. And the worst of it is that Barbosa has been forced to admit his blunder, saying that it was due to "a hasty reading of the figures."

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A DECADE OF RAILWAY TRAVEL.

THE Census Bulletin giving comparative railway statistics for New England during the last decade suggests a number of points having economic importance. The growth of passenger travel is one of these. It appears that population in New England increased 17 per cent. from 1880 to 1889, and the length of railroad line 16 per cent.; the growth being nearly the same in both. Yet the number of passengers carried almost doubled (increase 98 per cent.) during this period. This greater use of railway facilities in 1889 than in 1880 is due primarily to the increase in suburban travel; more people, that is, live out of town and go daily into the city for business or pleasure. This fact is clearly brought out by another comparison: though the number of passengers increased 98 per cent., the number of miles travelled by all of them increased but 78 per cent., showing that the larger part of this increase was in short-distance journeys. Other census figures have shown us that our larger cities are growing faster than the smaller towns or villages; it is an important fact to remember in connection with this that there is also evident a movement of population from the more crowded portions of cities toward the suburbs. The shortening of the average railroad journey shows this better than the census, because city suburbs may be practically in the country although included within the municipal limits.

This growth of suburban travel may be more clearly brought out by some statistics of a Western road. From 1880 to 1889 the mileage of the Chicago and Northwestern Railway increased 91 per cent., and its passenger movement (miles travelled by passengers) but 99 per cent. Thus its passenger traffic has scarcely more than kept pace with its extensions; but the character of that traffic has changed completely, the increase in the number of individual travellers being 190 per cent. That is, had it not been for the suburban travel (in and out of Chicago principally), the Northwestern's traffic would have shown a comparative decrease. The same is true of other Western roads. The difference in the percentages of increase between New England and the States beyond Chicago indicates more than a growth in suburban population. It will be noticed that the increase in passenger traffic per mile of road in New England, 1889 over 1880, is about 55 per cent., while on the Northwestern it is only 4 per cent. This means that country people and villagers use the railways much more frequently in New England than at the West. No doubt the census statistician is right in ascribing this in a great measure to the manufacturing industries in New England, which encourage travelling on the part of operatives seeking or changing employment, and also on the part of salesmen and other business men connected with factories. Yet the fact that the number of individual travellers has increased during the decade six times more than population, seems fairly to allow the inference that persons living in the villages or large towns in New England are now taking more frequent trips to neighboring cities or to Boston or New York—in other words, that opportunities for general culture are more common and more generally availed of.

The railways west of Chicago find a different state of affairs. Many of their lines reach into sections hundreds of miles from any great centre. The struggle for existence is hard. Farming considered as a business requires but little travelling on the part of those engaged in it, and, as a matter of fact, agriculture, so important to the community at large, furnishes less freight and passengers to a railway in proportion to its general importance than mining or manufacturing. The villagers of New England travel for other purposes than merely the sale of produce or the purchase of supplies. In the April report of the Department of Agriculture the statistician ventures to prophesy. He says: "The proportion of agricultural labor will decrease, non-agricultural will increase, agricultural production will be more varied, rural intelligence and skill will advance, and the farmer be in better position to demand and secure an equitable share in the net proceeds of national industries." The falling off in rural population shown by the census may be accompanied by an increase of product per capita, and be therefore to a certain extent a sign of progress; yet until the farmers are in a position of comparative comfort and wealth, it is evident they will not afford to railways such an amount of passenger traffic as will be a source of much net profit.

The railway which is ambitious to increase its passenger receipts must, at least in the West, look first to the cities. The English railway manager Mr. Findlay, in his paper before the International Railway Congress at Paris in 1889, summed up his experience in these words: "As regards long distance traffic, I do not believe that the reduction of fares or any other concessions tend to materially increase the volume of business; as a rule, people do not take long journeys unless they have an actual necessity to do so, and in that case they will travel whatever the fare may be, within reasonable limits. Of course, this remark is not intended to apply to the traffic between large towns and seaside and other holiday resorts, this being a case in which, by judicious concessions, a traffic is created which could not otherwise exist."

All this seems to confirm the view that a compulsory reduction of passenger fares on the part of Western legislatures will not of itself induce a corresponding increase in the travelling of the farming class. A growth in passenger traffic must depend for the present upon other things, such as more diversified industry. If the farmers cannot yet take frequent trips to the city, it is the part of wisdom to induce the city residents, if possible, to live in the country. Through such an exchange our railways may increase their traffic, and at the same time rob the fact of our cities' disproportionate growth of some of the terrors with which alarmists have clothed it.

THE PROSPEROUS SOUTH.

THE statistics presented by the Superintendent of the Census in a late number of the *Manufacturers' Record* justify an economist's recent hyperbole, that the future situs of the principal iron production of the nation will be found within a radius of seventy-five miles from the topmost peak of the Great Smoky Mountains. They also show that King Cotton of ante-bellum days is a thing of the past: he now shares his sway on the plantations with a great diversity of crops, while he has begun a new kingdom among the factories and mills of the new South.

"Tens of thousands of acres in the Southern States that at one time produced a bale of cotton to the acre, are now covered with millions of vines, peach and pear trees, while trains and steamers for months in the year bear northward their burdens of vegetables and small fruits to supply the markets in States where ice and snow still hold sway." Moreover, the establishment of great industries, with consequent concentration of population and increase of wants, has created a new home market for a variety of crops and dairy produce. The total gain in value of the agricultural products of the South in 1889 over 1879 was upwards of two hundred and fifty millions, while during the same period the increase in value of live stock (including horses, mules, milch cows, oxen, sheep, and hogs) was nearly $178,000,000. A moderate estimate places the aggregate value of the agricultural products of this region in 1889 at $850,000,000.

But the industrial growth and outlook of the Southern States cannot be more concisely or graphically measured than by the production and handling of the three staples, cotton, iron, and coal; the last of these three is, indeed, an open sesame to the successful manufacture of the first two. "The fact that since 1865 nearly $8,000,000,000 have been brought into the South to pay for cotton, explains in part the marvellous recuperative powers of this section since the war." For many years three-fourths of the world's annual cotton crop (now about 11,000,000 bales) has come from the United States, but whereas, in 1880, the amount of cotton manufactured in the South was only 180,000 bales, in 1890 it had reached half a million bales, an increase in round numbers of 175 per cent., or about 8 per cent. of its product. In 1880 the twelve Southern States had only 156 cotton mills; last year they reported 366.

The South to-day is producing as much coal, iron ore, and pig iron as the whole country did twenty years ago. In the census year 1870 the bituminous-coal production of the Southern States was only 2,000,000 tons, that of the United States 15,000,000; in 1880 the output for the Southern States had risen to 5,676,160, in 1890 to 17,772,945 tons.

The quality of this Southern coal peculiarly adapts it for manufacturing purposes. Official reports of various comparative analyses of the Pennsylvania coke and the East Tennessee forty-six and seventy-two-hours' cokes show the superior quality of the

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Tennessee coal for smelting iron ore, and for use in the various manufactures of steel in the Bessemer and open-hearth steel works. It has been asserted by many iron-makers that Southern iron ore could not compete in the manufacture of steel rails, etc., but competent experts reinforce the chemical analyses which prove that the magnetic iron ore of Tennessee "produces a metal not only fit for rails and the finest structural steel, but from which the finest cutlery has been and can be made." Mr. Porter states that enough of these high-grade ores exist in eastern Tennessee to supply the Southwest with steel and iron for a thousand years. Although previous to 1870 the mineral industries of the Southern States were almost *nil* (Tennessee being the only one in that year reporting any pig iron, and then less than 29,000 tons), while in 1880 their entire output of pig iron was short of 400,000 tons, in 1890 the production of iron ore in the nine iron-producing Southern States amounted to 2,917,529 tons, almost equal to the total production of the whole country in 1870.

Already, as a result of this wonderful mineral development, whole sections of country have been metamorphosed from agricultural to manufacturing districts, and we find an increase of urban population in several States of from 50 to 93 per cent. This revolution in social distribution—which it is the fashion to deplore regardless of the causes producing the change—has been a potent factor in educational advancement. With the phenomenal increase of taxable property incident to this concentration of population has come a gain in public-school enrolment enormously greater than the increase in population, with a correspondingly generous expenditure for educational needs. In Virginia alone between 1880 and 1890, while the per cent. of gain in population was only 9.48, the per cent. of gain in public-school enrolment was 55.06. It may be noted that with this advance in general educational facilities, the number of periodicals published at the South has increased over 65 per cent. The Census Bulletin on urban population contains hundreds of examples of small towns in Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, Kentucky, North Carolina, and Virginia, which have, during the last decade, magically grown into centres of industry, intelligence, and thrift.

The railroad mileage of the South between 1880 and 1890 increased over 97 per cent., with a network of new roads being built and projected. The total assessed value of property in the nine States of Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, and West Virginia in 1880 was $2,913,436,095, in 1889 it was $4,220,166,400, being an increase during the ten years of $1,306,729,929; but the census authorities state that these figures represent only about "41 per cent. of the true value. . . . On this basis . . . there was a gain of over $3,000,000,000."

The advance of one section of the United States means a step forward for all. Southern progress stands for national growth, and, as such, appeals to the North as well as to the South; indeed, much of the industrial activity at the South revealed by the Eleventh Census would have been impossible without Northern capital, experience, and enterprise. That the people of the Southern States show a willingness to better their instruction, illustrates the power of recuperation and the capacity for social evolution always possessed by a sound and intelligent race.

BISMARCK'S TRANSFORMATION.

PRINCE BISMARCK has at last been elected to the Reichstag on a second ballot for the constituency of Geestemünde, by a clear majority over his opponent, Herr Schmalfeldt, the Socialistic candidate. But the whole process has been very humiliating for him. It was very hard for such a magnate as he to have any opposition at all, when he announced his willingness to return to politics, in a country in which official greatness counts for so much as in Germany; but it was harder still to find that he could not on the first ballot get a majority of the votes. Even on the second ballot Herr Schmalfeldt has made a very respectable showing, for he has about 5,500 votes, against Bismarck's 10,500. Few would have believed, without seeing it, that Bismarck could have been induced to make such an attempt, and fewer still that, if made, it would not be immediately successful.

But his difficulty in getting into Parliament is not nearly as odd as his wish to get in. During his whole official life he has never lost an opportunity of repudiating the idea that he was or ever could be anybody's servant but the Crown's, and that he was or could be made accountable for anything he said or did to anybody but the Emperor, and that it was allowable for any man who had ever been a servant of the Crown to become, in any shape or form, a critic or opponent of the policy of the Government, in or out of Parliament. No one in Germany repelled so resolutely as he the notion that there was any analogy or resemblance between the Prussian parliamentary system and that of Great Britain, or that there could be such a thing in the German Parliament as a legitimate or loyal opposition headed by an ex-Minister. In truth, he punished several of his old colleagues—Eulenburg, Falk, Hobrecht, and Puttkamer, for instance—for acting on or even countenancing this theory.

No sooner, however, had he been precipitated into private life, and discovered that he was after all not a necessary man, and that the Empire had not to wait until his death in order to find out how to do without him, than he adopted the English system, apparently without the least hesitation. He has been for nearly a year pouring forth from his retreat at Friedrichsruhe a stream of criticism on the policy of the Emperor and his Ministers almost as trenchant and bitter as those of Mr. Gladstone or John Morley on the policy of the Ministry in England. But then these might have passed as the utterances of what is known to us as a "Sage," namely, a retired politician, living in the country at some little distance from a railroad station, and ready to converse on public affairs with all visitors, in the character simply of a somewhat despondent observer. Even this was thought very unbecoming; but everybody, from the Emperor down, was disposed to forgive much to a man whose fall from power and greatness had been so sudden and mortifying, and in whose breast both hope and ambition were dead.

It now turns out that he does not mean to be a Sage at all; that he has gone clear over to the English idea of parliamentary government; that he desires to reënter public life, as the leader of the Opposition, like Mr. Gladstone, and, like Mr. Gladstone, finds it quite possible to be a loyal subject of the Emperor, and even a loyal colonel of cavalry, while condemning all the plans and projects and ideas of the Ministry, and while in fact proclaiming his belief that they are leading the Empire, and even the social fabric itself, straight to ruin. No conversion from one school of politics to another so sudden and complete has happened in modern times. The Prince has gone over to the enemy with arms and baggage. There have been many cases since the French Revolution of the reconciliation of believers in divine right and strong military government to the theory of popular sovereignty and government by public opinion, but they have all, or at least all the conspicuous ones, been cases of reconciliation to the inevitable—cases of resignation to the Divine will while expecting the worst to happen. No one of Bismarck's standing has before not only adopted Liberal ideas, but deliberately undertaken to use Liberal instrumentalities in support of them.

That the effect on German politics of his appearance in the new rôle in the Reichstag will be very demoralizing, we may feel very sure. He will not figure very long as a leader of the Opposition without making terrible fissures in the old Prussian theory of personal government and royal sacredness. The young politicians will cease to dread the social discredit of opposition, and freer parliamentary speech will become common among even aspirants to office. The English idea that an organized and well-led opposition is an essential part of parliamentary institutions, and that there is no necessary connection between criticism of men in power and treason or sedition, will gain a firm foothold in German politics, and gradually transform the Government, as the young Emperor gets over the confidence in his own wisdom and capacity which is not unnatural at his age. To feel thoroughly the strangeness of all this, one has, however, to look at some of Bismarck's speeches during his quarrels with the Prussian Landtag between 1862 and 1866, when he was the pride and glory of Junkerdom.

A MISREPRESENTED RUIN.

PHILADELPHIA, April 2, 1891.

ABOUT fifteen miles northwest of the ruins of Niffer, where we were excavating, is the ruin mound of Zibliyeh, marked on Kiepert's 'Ruinenfelder' as the "great ruins of Zibliyeh." It was readily visible from Niffer,

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forming our landmark on the northern horizon beyond the shifting sand-hills. It was an object of special interest to us, for in his report to the Archæological Institute the director of the Wolfe Expedition had said: "Zibliye is not a large mound; but it possesses a conspicuous *ziggurat*, and no excavation has ever been made there." This meant, of course, an unexplored and unknown Babylonian city with a temple of the first class, possessing a *ziggurat*, or stage pyramid, in the corners of which inscribed cylinders of clay were probably waiting to reveal to the happy explorer who should dig them out the secret of the name and origin of this forgotten shrine and city. Loftus and Sir H. Rawlinson, to be sure, were inclined to refer these ruins to a later period, probably the Parthian, but they had been outvoted, so that in his 'Ancient Monarchies' even Canon Rawlinson, following especially Layard, notices Zibliyeh as an ancient Babylonian ruin.

During our first year's work we were not able to visit Zibliyeh, but in the second year I determined to make a special effort to examine a little more carefully than had hitherto been done such of the ruin mounds of Babylonia as were within my reach, with a view especially to determine the epoch to which they belonged, and also the prospects for excavation. Our permit did not allow me to undertake excavations outside of the area of ten square kilometres at and about Niffer, for the Turkish law concerning antiquities is a copy of the Greek law; but the Government does not forbid explorers to examine unknown sites to determine whether or not excavations are desirable. Zibliyeh lies in a desert and forlorn country, overblown with sand-hills; waterless, except for the stagnant pools which you find everywhere in the desert after rain; a no-man's land, the roaming ground of various tribes of wild Arabs. Moreover, between us and Zibliyeh lay, or was apt to lie (for territories there are vague and variable) the land of the es-Sa'id Arabs, some of whom professed to have a blood feud against me, which involved their shooting me on sight or my paying them blood-money, the preliminary payment asked for being $45. The Affej Arabs, having entered into a guarantee for my safety, could not afford to allow me to be shot or stolen, since in the event of my loss they would lose their present profits from the monopoly of my usufruct and their expected reward for my safeguard; and they might even get into trouble with the Government. On the other hand, they did not wish any complications with the es-Sa'id. So alarmed did they profess to be at the threats of some of the latter tribe against my life (I knew that they were really directed against my pocket) that I was always kept under the closest watch, and could not leave the camp for any purpose without finding myself attended by an escort of one or two Arabs armed with long old-fashioned flint-locks. Naturally they did not wish me to go to Zibliyeh, and sought to prevent, and actually did delay, my trip to that point by all sorts of trickery and many somewhat inconsistent stories.

It was towards the end of March when I said positively that I was going, guard or no guard. When it became clear to their minds that I would not be deterred, difficulties and dangers suddenly vanished. The brother of our chief, with a couple of his tribesmen, mounted, formed our escort. Two Arab workmen with pick and hoe trotted by our side, keeping easy pace with our horses. On our right were the sand hills, like waves of the sea, and almost as fluctuating. There is not so much sand as one might suppose from the map, but it blows back and forth over a large area. In our course, according to Kiepert's 'Ruinenfelder,' which is based on the British surveys of the district, should have lain the "great ruins of Chirzîûn." I did not hear that name, neither did I see any great ruins. Abu Jasim, also, which is marked on the map, I failed to find. Both going and coming we passed several fields and very low mounds of brick and pottery fragments; the nameless, village-like ruins which one encounters in such great numbers all over the country. Sometimes the traveller will ride for miles over a plain strewn with pottery fragments, and not see the slightest elevation to mark the site of former buildings.

I had hoped to be able to trace the course of the ancient Shatt-en-Nil, the canal river by which Babylon and Niffer once held communication; but about a quarter or half a mile from Niffer all traces of the canal bed seemed vanished, and I did not find them again before Zibliyeh, some of the mounds at which place seemed to me to be old canal banks, perhaps the banks of the Shatt-en-Nil, with some transverse canals. It must be remembered, by the way, that the beds, and not only the banks of the ancient canals, are higher than the level of the plain. Only the newer canals, or those which were dug out again in more recent times, exist as depressions in the surface. The Shatt-en-Nil, one of the greatest and most important ship canals of ancient Babylonia, has a very deep dry bed at Babylon, where it leaves the Euphrates; and at Warka, ancient Erech, where it rejoins that stream, it is still deep enough to be full of water in the spring and early summer, as I found later by experience; but at intervening points I have found it as two lines of mounds, the space between which was elevated a yard or so above the surrounding plain.

Zibliyeh was a great disappointment. There is one prominent mound, the *ziggurat* of Layard and Ward, and a few low, insignificant mounds around it. Loftus says that the main mound is fifty feet high and forty-four paces square. It is hard to tell just where to measure it. I set the central or erect portion down as about thirty feet high, seventy-five feet long, and fifty feet broad. Two of the corners point approximately north and south. A very brief examination served to show that we had to do with no *ziggurat*, nor even with a ruin of the Babylonian period. On the northeast and southwest faces, where the mound had been much washed away, the ends of two several vaults of masonry are exposed to view, one of which served, at the occasion of our visit, for a hyena's den. Evidently, therefore, this was no solid terrace, like those which constitute the stages of a *ziggurat*. A very little scraping on the top of the mound revealed a structure of brick and plaster, resting on these vaults as a substructure. They, again, rested on a mound or terrace, apparently of rubble or clay, faced with a solid, thick wall of unbaked brick. This wall was carried up all around, either for defence or as an enclosure, to a point higher than the vaults, but lower than the top of the brick-and-plaster structure which was built upon those vaults. On the northeastern side, half way up, I found a small, shallow piece of brick wall at right angles to the outer walls, looking as though the entrance to the building above were by an ascent, either steps or an inclined plane, over the unbaked brick walls at this point, like the entrance to the famous Assyrian palace of Sargon at Khorsabad, but on a very small scale. On the top of the mound we found a rough plaster moulding and a part of a small half column of the same material. A piece of a similar half column was found at the foot of the mound. The baked bricks were of poor work, yellowish without and greenish within, coarse, uneven, and brittle. They were set in a profusion of mortar. The unbaked bricks, also, were of inferior quality, the clay little worked, full of air, and not well compressed, so that they crumble away and dissolve very readily, unlike the bricks of the good Babylonian periods. The straw with which the clay had been mixed to make the bricks was remarkably preserved; so that on breaking them you find not merely the mould of the straw in the clay, but the straw itself. Between each layer of bricks was a layer of reeds. These also were remarkably well preserved, and often where the bricks had been washed away you could see the reeds projecting so far that they waved and rustled in the wind. Outside of the ruins of this castle there is nothing of any importance at Zibliyeh—merely a few irregular, low, small mounds, some of them probably canal mounds, and fragments of brick and pottery scattered over the flat surface of the plain.

From what I saw I do not think that Zibliyeh could possibly be older than the Parthian period, where Loftus places it, while it might be much younger. The Arabs thereabouts say that it was built by an Arab king as a place from which to signal to bring his adherents together in case of a raid. Such native Arab stories of the origin and purpose of the ruins of the desert are ordinarily of no value whatever. In this case the present practice of the Bedouin has given rise to the story. Zibliyeh, Niffer, and similar ruin mounds are the only elevations, and, consequently, the natural watch-towers and signal stations of the country. On occasion of a threatened raid of the Shammar I have seen the top of the Bint-el-Amir, the *ziggurat* of the temple of Bel at Niffer, used as the station from which to warn the es-Sa'id and the Affej of the movements of the supposed marauders. The signal flag was nothing but an *dba*, the common Arabic cloak.

Zibliyeh may have been a castle to control a canal centre. This may also have been the object of the famous ruin of Akerkuf, near Babylon, the centre of the most remarkable network of canals that I saw in all Babylonia; only Akerkuf was, I judge, both more important and far older than Zibliyeh. Layard's error in describing Zibliyeh as an old Babylonian *ziggurat* ('Nineveh and Babylon,' p. 569) is readily explained and pardoned when it is remembered that he was returning, seriously ill and almost unable to sit his horse, from his bootless attempt to excavate Niffer, and took refuge on the summit of this mound, as the only visible place of defence against a hostile-looking troop of Arabs. He was not in a condition to observe for himself, but was compelled to trust to the eyes of others, who in their turn were too excited and hurried to observe correctly.

We were able to stay at Zibliyeh only about two hours, because, through a blunder, we found ourselves very inadequately supplied with water, and the men became useless and uncontrollable when suffering from thirst. Two Rufe'a Arabs came to Zibliyeh in search of water, because their camp had consumed the stagnant pool on which they had been depending, and must find another pool. Such is their life, and it is almost incredible on how little and how vile water they subsist. If their horses, camels, sheep, and asses can drink it, that is enough. Neither do they always encamp near

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water, for I have seen a large camp situated at a distance of almost ten miles from water, while a distance of three or four miles is not infrequent. Water is needed chiefly for the animals, and they can be driven some miles to water, pasturing on the way back and forth. Their wants satisfied, little water is needed in camp, only enough for cooking, making coffee, and sometimes mixing with *lebben*, the soured or fermented milk of sheep or camels. No water was visible from Zibliyeh, and we knew of the existence of none nearer than the upper end of our own marshes, some nine or ten miles away, for the swamp of Abu Semak (father of fish) of Kiepert no longer exists. Accordingly about noon we were compelled to go in search of the Ruf'ea camp, which we found two or three miles away to the northeast. The Rufe'a had no water, but provided us liberally with *lebben*. It seemed useless to return to Zibliyeh, and all the men were strongly against it, so we went back to Niffer directly by a route further east than the one by which we had come in the morning.

I have ventured to enter into the narrative of this day's work somewhat fully because it illustrates very well the conditions of work in Mesopotamia, its difficulties, and the unsatisfactory and meagre knowledge of the country which we possess even in its best-explored parts; and I have described the ruins of Zibliyeh themselves at some length because, unimportant and comparatively modern as they actually are, they have been classed as important ruins, the remains of a great temple, and therefore presumably also of a great city, in the ancient Babylonian period.

JOHN P. PETERS.

Correspondence.

THE MOST-FAVORED-NATION CLAUSE AND RECIPROCITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of the 23d inst., in an editorial discussion of the reciprocity treaty with Spain, uses the following language:

"If Spain's treaty engagements with Great Britain, France, and Germany, or either of them, contain the 'most favored nation' clause, and if this clause applies to her colonies, she will be compelled to extend to them the same treatment as to ourselves. This would prevent us from gaining any advantage over other countries in the sale of articles, either raw or manufactured, unless we have a natural advantage."

This statement seems to be founded upon a misapprehension of the force and effect of the "most favored nation" clause in commercial treaties. If it were true that a reciprocal agreement with Spain to admit her sugar free of duty in exchange for a like favor on her part in respect of American products, carried with it the obligation that each of the contracting parties should place on the same footing all countries with which it had a "most favored nation" treaty, there would be an end to reciprocity treaties. The United States now have treaties with upwards of thirty States in which the "most favored nation" clause is to be found in one form or another, and if the statement quoted from the *Nation* be correct, our Government would be bound to extend to every one of these States the same privileges accorded to Hawaii, Brazil, or Spain under the reciprocity treaties with those nations. But, fortunately, no such obligation rests on either of the contracting Powers. It has been from our earliest diplomatic history the contention of our Government that the "most favored nation" clause has no application to privileges granted on the consideration of reciprocal advantage, but only to privileges granted gratuitously, and in this decision other Governments have generally acquiesced.

The question seems to have first arisen with reference to the treaty with France in 1803, by the eighth article of which it was agreed that the ships of France should "be treated upon the footing of the most favored nations" in the ports of the territory ceded to the United States by that treaty. France claimed that special favors had been granted to English ships to which French ships, under this article, were equally entitled. The United States replied that the favors granted to English ships were in accordance with a reciprocal agreement and were not gratuitous, and that therefore France had no claim to equal favors under the article cited. From this position our Government declined to recede, and France abandoned the claim in the treaty of 1831.

The same position was taken by Mr. Evarts, then Secretary of State, with regard to the effect of the reciprocity treaty with Hawaii. Other nations having treaties with Hawaii containing the "most favored nation" clause, particularly Germany and Great Britain, sought to claim from the Hawaiian Government the same privileges granted to the United States. Our Government protested against any concession to this claim as impairing the obligations of the treaty of reciprocity, and in this view the Hawaiian Government concurred.

Curiously enough, however, it appears that the Spanish Government entertained in 1884, when a reciprocity treaty with the United States was under discussion, the same views as those expressed in the *Nation*, and assigned as an objection to such a treaty the existence of the "most favored nation" clause in the treaties of Spain with other nations. To this objection Mr. Frelinghuysen replied that—

"This Government has always assumed that Spain held the same views as ourselves respecting the effect of a reciprocity treaty in connection with the most-favored-nation clause in other treaties. This country has that clause in many of its compacts with foreign States, but it has never occurred to them or to us to suppose that we were thereby constrained to grant to those treaty Powers without equivalent the privileges which we had by special engagements stipulated to concede to countries like Hawaii and Canada, for a valuable consideration."

It is safe to presume that in the present case the doubts of Spain have been resolved upon this point, and that she does not hold herself bound to give to one nation what she has sold to another.

There has also been a judicial determination of the question in favor of the view above set forth. Importers of sugar from the Danish West Indies claimed, under the "most favored nation" clause of the treaty between Denmark and the United States, the same privileges as were accorded to Hawaii under the reciprocity treaty with that country, and, having paid the usual duty under protest, brought suit for its recovery. Mr. Justice Field, speaking for the Supreme Court, said: "Our conclusion is that the treaty with Denmark does not bind the United States to extend to that country, without compensation, privileges which they have conceded to the Hawaiian Islands in exchange for valuable concessions" (Bartram vs. Robertson, 122 U. S., 116).

It is not uncommon in the later treaties expressly to stipulate that the "most favored nation" clause shall not be deemed to extend to concessions granted to other nations upon the consideration of reciprocal privileges. But, as Mr. Bayard, when Secretary of State, pointed out, "this proviso, when it occurs, is merely explanatory, inserted out of abundant caution. Its absence does not impair the rule of international law that such concessions are only gratuitous (and so transferable) as to third parties when not based on reciprocity or mutually reserved interests between the contracting parties. This ground has been long and consistently maintained by the United States."

E. W. HUFFCUT.

INDIANA UNIVERSITY LAW SCHOOL, April 27, 1891.

WASHINGTON AND ROADES CONNECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to Mr. Moncure D. Conway's interesting article on the "English Ancestry of Washington" in the number of *Harper's Magazine* for May, I am forced to say that Mr. Conway unduly degrades, to modern ears, the President's supposed ancestor, John Roades, bailiff to Sir Edmund Verney, by calling him a "farm servant" (p. 884), as at present the term "servant" is generally held equivalent to menial. A bailiff was not a menial; on the contrary, he was the manager, often the *de-facto* master, of an estate, having under him the farm servants and menials; in fact, he was the equivalent of our overseer or agent. As stated above, the term "servant" is, at present, held in ordinary estimation but equivalent to "menial." This was not so in the seventeenth century; then a nobleman might be called a servant to the king, a gentleman the servant of a titled personage, without loss of dignity. And so it was with these Roadeses: they were gentlemen, or, at least, yeomen, serving a knight (not mere farm servants), as the official documents referred to by Mr. Waters, in his 'Ancestry of Washington,' reprinted from the *N. E. Historical and Genealogical Register* for October, 1889, show; William Roades being distinctly styled "gen." (pp. 8 and 10), that is, *generosus*, gentleman *born*, from which we may infer that his father (supposed to have been John Roades) was also a gentleman, otherwise his son could not have been one by birth. Moreover, the good standing of this family of Roades is shown by its connection with that of Fitzherbert; Elizabeth Roades, apparently the sister of Amphillis Roades (Mrs. Washington), having married Edward Fitzherbert.

At the same time, no doubt, these Roadeses were not on a par with the Washingtons; hence the match, likely enough, was considered somewhat of a misalliance; but not a social degradation as may be inferred from the modern understanding of the term "servant."

C.

MAY 1, 1891.

THE VERB *DEMEAN*, 'DEBASE.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There being nowhere, it appears, anything like a full discussion of this word, I shall attempt to supply, in some slight measure, the deficiency.

By the side of *demean*, *demeanour*, we have the *demean* with which I am occupied; "really the same word," Prof. Skeat dogmatizes, "but altered in sense, owing to an obvious (but absurd) popular etymology." Its constituents, the Latin preposition *de* and the English adjective *mean*, are here referred to. Yet why, if we chose, were we not to have, made up of those constituents, a factitive *demean*, classifi-

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able with *deprave?* Whatever adverse reasons, or pretexts for reasons, are allegeable, this *demean* confronts us as an actual fact. Instead, therefore, of being "really the same word" as the old *demean*, it is wholly different, save partly as respects its first syllable. And again, its origination was sufficiently respectable. It is a hybrid, certainly; but of that character are *debar*, *defile*, *detach*, the outworn *defoul*, and the American *derail*, to go no farther. Accordingly, to stigmatize its etymology as "absurd" is, itself, something like what is, with popular laxity, called an absurdity. It is on historical grounds that I base my dissent from those who are satisfied with Prof. Skeat's otiose method of accounting for the modern *demean*. When this word emerged, the old *demean*, used reflexively, was in full vigor; and no one has offered to prove that *demean oneself well* was, in any age, less common than *demean onese'f ill*. Why, then, should this *demean* have had the idea of debasement attached to it? As far as I can conjecture, on the view which I am combating, *demean oneself ill* must, at one period, have been so much more current than *demean oneself well*, that sciolists thought themselves justified in doing away with its *ill*, as being pleonastic. And, especially, such sciolists must have achieved a notable exploit in reviving, with a new sense, the old transitive *demean*, 'conduct,' which, in all likelihood, had been, for some two generations, hardly better than obsolete. For, on the showing of the quotations about to be exhibited, *demean another*, 'debase another,' which, theoretically, precedes *demean oneself*, 'debase oneself,' does not figure, practically, as the later innovation of the two. So much for the genesis of the modern *demean*. Whether it is yet legitimated by an adequate consensus of good writers is a question by itself.

Dr. Murray and Mr. Henry Bradley, of the *Philological Society's Dictionary*, have been so obliging, in connexion with the term I am investigating, as to furnish me, the one with a quotation, at first sight seemingly of great interest, and the other with the Latin which it is designed to render. Caxton, in one of his translations, the *Golden Legende*, printed in 1483, writes that St. Stephen "was . . . demened and beten." But this, it turns out, stands for "feriebatur & *perducebatur*"; and hence, since "demened" is one with 'led forth,' the idea suggested by its context, that it might signify 'debased,' is at once dissipated. On the plea of their being misunderstood, we may also confidently set aside the passages from Spenser and Bp. Robert Abbot (1601) which Archdeacon Todd brings forward, under the transitive *demean*, as having the import of 'debase,' or one closely allied to it. As to the quotations from Dean Swift (1733) and Benjamin Franklin (1788), the only oldish ones that I have seen adduced, their relevance is unquestionable; but, that many still earlier than the first of those which follow will come to light, may reasonably be presumed:

"By it [jealousy] we *demean* the Person we love, through unworthy Suspicion." Mrs. Jane Barker, *Exilius* (1715), Part I., p. 59.

"The whole subject [is] disoblig'd, if not quash'd; the Author *demean'd*, if not actively and passively ridicul'd." Myles Davies, *Athenae Britannicae*, Part II. (1716), p. 140.

"As to affectation in general, we shall hereafter give some instances how all kinds of it *demean* and render trifling the persons who are guilty of it." Mrs. Eliza Heywood (1745), *Female Spectator* (ed. 1748), vol. iii., p. 191.

"Zadock . . . now stood behind his back, and would not *demean* the Briton so much as to wait upon any person but his laird." William Toldervy, *History of Two Orphans* (1756), vol. iv., p. 29.

"Let Swift be Swift, nor e'er *demean* The sense and humour of the Dean." Robert Lloyd (1762), *Poetical Works* (1774), vol. ii., p. 35.

"Look *up* to thy daughter, good Simon? Alas, no! The Captain of Clan Quhele, great as he is, and greater as he soon expects to be, looks *down* to the daughter of the Perth burgess, and considers himself *demeaned* in doing so." Sir Walter Scott, *Fair Maid of Perth* (1828), chap. xxvii.

"These particular individuals . . . had met, from those to whom they *demeaned* themselves, that return which their time-serving and disloyalty had deserved." Rev. Dr. Christopher Wordsworth, *King Charles the First*, etc. (1828), p. 244.

"Even Sir Isaac shall not be *demeaned* by mercenary tricks." Lord Lytton, *What will he do with it?* (1858), vol. i., p. 401 (ed. 1859).

"Besides, she lays traps to *demean* me, set me to work like a clerk!" *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 114.

"The party which bears on its banner the Cross and the name of God must not *demean* its high mission by any narrow-hearted squirearchical selfishness." *Saturday Review* (1856), vol. ii., p. 37.

"If the Master be a fit man for his office, methinks he will sometimes sit down sociably among them; for there is an elbow chair by the fireside, which it would not *demean* his dignity to fill, since it was occupied by King James at the great festival of nearly three centuries ago." Mr. Nathaniel Hawthorne, *Our Old Home* (1863), p. 98 (ed. 1864).

Dr. Johnson, whose fancy still misleads Dr. Webster's editors, thought that he had lighted on an instance of the verb under notice, used reflexively, in Shakespeare's *Comedy of Errors;* and, though, among his editors, Archdeacon Todd was, and quite warrantably, of a contrary opinion, Dr. Latham has since tacitly subscribed to the original misapprehension. At the same time, Dr. Latham omits the only other quotation which the Archdeacon gives for the reflexive *demean*, namely, from Dr. Doddridge, and, consequently, leaves it absolutely unexemplified. Nor is any author vouched for it by Dr. Richardson, little to his credit. The proofs of its frequent occurrence which will be produced may, therefore, be acceptable to the curious.

Before producing these proofs, however, I must transcribe and scrutinize a passage from the Rev. Dr. Peter Heylyn:

"For Athanasius tells us, that hee [George] had before beene made a Priest, and that he so *demeaned* himselfe in that holy Calling, that he was forthwith deposed from the Ministery." *Historie of St. George of Cappadocia* (1631), p. 106.

On most occasions, and, perhaps, above all, when he is minded to be calumnious or brutal, Dr. Heylyn is explicit enough, even to superabundance. For instance, this precious vessel of sanctitude and savagery records the wish, in one of his diatribes, that a learned fellow-cleric, Henry Burton, had lived in days when his tongue would have been "cut out." There is no ambiguity here; and it must be that, in writing, as above, "*demeaned* himselfe," which represents διὰ τὴν κακίαν αὐτοῦ, he took it for granted that the contextual "he was forthwith deposed," etc., could leave no room for doubt that George's behaviour, though designated by a term ethically neutral, was ill behaviour. Only in defiance of historical probability, I conceive, can Heylyn, any more than Spenser, Shakespeare, and Bp. Robert Abbot, be appealed to as employing the old *demean* dyslogistically.

But, despite the poverty of pertinent illustration observable in dictionaries, the reflexive *demean*, from *de* and *mean*, abounds in later literature, as the quotations given below will be seen to establish:

"I would not be understood, that Men of Honour and Estate should *demean* themselves by base condescension." Anon., *Miscellany Letters from Mist's Journal* (1720), vol. i., p. 306 (ed. 1722).

"I could make you sensible that you ought to have been asham'd, long ago, of standing in need of the Interposition of the House of Commons, to prevent you from *demeaning* yourselves so much as to wear so uncostly a Dress as Callico." Bartholomew Paman (1723), *Briton* (1724), p. 28.

"To write she thought would be *demeaning* herself too much, and might make him rather despise than love her." Mrs. Eliza Heywood (1744), *Female Spectator* (ed. 1748), vol. i., p. 254. Also in vol. i., p. 228; vol. ii., pp. 48, 277; vol. iii., p. 186; vol. iv., p. 137. And *id.*, *History of Miss Betsy Thoughtless* (1751), vol. i., p. 204.

"A woman is looked upon as *demeaning* herself, if she gains a maintenance by her needle, or by domestic attendance on a superior." Samuel Richardson, *Sir Charles Grandison* (1754), vol. iv., p. 154 (ed. 1811).

"I shall not *demean* myself so much as to tell you who I am." Mrs. Charlotte Lennox, *Henrietta* (1758), vol. i., p. 3 (ed. 1761).

"When Mrs. Catharines rose, she found me busied in the basest employments of the kitchen. She looked astonished. 'Why, my dear,' she cried, 'would you *demean* yourself in this manner?'" Henry Brooke, *Fool of Quality* (1760-72), vol. iii., p. 167 (ed. 1792).

"I think I cannot much *demean* myself by an alliance with a sweet fellow whom I so ardently love." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. v., p. 207.

"Have I, sirrah, *demean'd* myself to wed such a thing, such a reptile as thee!" Foote, *Mayor of Garratt* (1763), Act ii., Scene ii.

"Oh Madam, how can you *demean*, as I may say, undervalue [yourself]—" *Id.*, *Patron* (1764), Act ii., Scene i.

"Hold, gentle princess, said Theodore, nor *demean* thyself before a poor and friendless young man." Horace Walpole, *Castle of Otranto* (1764), Ch. iii., in *British Novelists* (1820), vol. xxii., p. 260.

"Mr. Heidelberg lost his election for member of parliament, because I would not *demean* myself to be slobbered about by drunken shoemakers, beastly cheesemongers, and greasy butchers and tallow-chandlers." Colman and Garrick, *Clandestine Marriage* (1766), Act iii., Scene ii.

"This lesser philosophy engagingly *demeans* itself to all characters and situations." Coriat Junior (Samuel Paterson), *Another Traveller!* (1767), vol. i., p. 427.

"It abates my veneration, when I see a man descend from the seat of authority, and *demean* himself to the employment of weighing out a quarter of the worst bohea." Anon., *Life and Adventures of Sir Bartholomew Sapskull, Baronet* (1768), vol. i., p. 207.

"He persisted, therefore, inflexibly in the resolution not to *demean* himself by begging suffrages in the low, abject manner common at that time." Goldsmith, *Grecian History* (1774), vol. i, p. 379.

"Is it likely she will permit her favourite nephew to *demean* himself by so unequal an alliance?" Anon., *Trinket* (1774), p. 52.

"I won't *demean* myself by naming what you are." Sheridan, *Duenna* (1775), Act i., Scene iii.

"The page pulled me by the sleeve, and whispered me that I should *demain* [*sic*] myself in all mens eyes, was I to discourse with such folks." Anon., *Minor* (1787), p. 220.

"To mix in so low a conspiracy, and *demean* himself by the adoption of such illiberal arts." William Roberts, *Looker-on* (1793), vol. ii., p. 197 (ed. 1794).

"The learned and excellent men . . . are not accustomed to *demean* themselves so far as to judge of works so much below their notice as this." Dr. Charles Burney, *Memoirs of Metastasio* (1796), vol. i., p. 26.

"Mrs. Persian, lamenting that she . . . should have *demeaned* herself so much as to wait on the niece of a simple knight," etc. Mrs. A. M. Bennett, *Beggar Girl and her Benefactors* (1797), vol. v., p. 239 (ed. 1813).

"As if divided between the agreeable triumph of showing her activity and usefulness, and the dread of being thought to *demean* herself by such an office." Miss Jane Austen, *Mansfield Park* (1814), p. 342 (ed. 1866).

"To what indignity, Heated with rage, would I *demean* myself!" Charles Lloyd, *Translation of Alfieri* (1815), vol. ii., p. 46.

"Not that they ever beat or struck the boys: that would have been to have *demeaned* themselves," etc. Charles Lamb (1818), *Prose Works* (ed. 1838), vol i., p. 89.

"He sometimes *demeans* himself by condescending to what may be considered as

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bordering too much upon buffoonery," etc. William Hazlitt (1818), *Political Essays* (1819), p. 362.

"My only doubt was, whether I should *demean* myself so far as to implore his intercession." Thomas Hope, *Anastasius* (1819), vol. i., p. 118 (ed. 1827).

"'Master Smith may fill for himself, if he wishes for liquor,' answered the youthful Celt. 'The son of my father has *demeaned* himself enough, already, for one evening.'" Sir Walter Scott, *Fair Maid of Perth* (1828), chap. ii.

"I never saw a Merry Andrew that I did not feel ashamed that a man should *demean* himself by taking such a part." Rev. F. E. Paget, *Tales of the Village Children*, second series (1844), p. 41 (ed. 1858). Mr. Paget, in his *Milford Malvoisin* (1842), p. 35, puts "I shall not *demean* myself," etc., into the mouth of an imaginary speaker in 1643. Herein, so far as appears, he anachronizes; and so does Sir Walter Scott, in the two quotations which I have taken from him.

"I had even the necessity to *demean* myself by a blow with the naked hand." Lord Lytton, *Caxtons* (1849), vol. iii., p. 92. And so very often in Lord Lytton's works.

"No, Major Pendennis would on no account have his nephew appear like an apothecary; the august representative of the house of Pendennis must not so *demean* himself." Mr. W. M. Thackeray, *Pendennis* (1849-50), ch. lxi. Many like quotations from Mr. Thackeray are at hand.

"The growl of indignation at Jack's so *demeaning* himself would probably not be appeased," etc. Mr. A. J. B. Hope, in *Cambridge Essays* (1858), p. 8.

"I admit that I am a spy, and that it is considered a discreditable station, though it must be filled by somebody; but this gentleman is no spy, and why should he so *demean* himself as to make himself one?" Mr. Charles Dickens, *Tale of Two Cities* (1859), p 176 (ed. 1868).

"They would not *demean* themselves to submit to this sort of paltry tutelage." *Saturday Review* (1861), vol. xii., p. 551.

"But who would suspect the Board of Works of *demeaning* itself to ask an architect's advice on such a trifle as the pageantry of a national wedding?" *Ibid.* (1863), vol. xv., p. 368

"It is not to be thought of that a youth . . . should *demean* himself by marrying," etc. London *Daily News*, leading article, Aug. 8, 1890, p. 5, col. 2.

Dr. Murray, my indebtedness to whom I have already acknowledged, has kindly communicated to me a number of quotations, kindred to the foregoing, which I have not availed myself of; those that have been given, all of them collected by myself, being amply enough to serve my purpose.

Dr. W. B. Hodgson, in his *Errors in the Use of English* (1881), cites, for *demean*, 'debase,' with other authorities, the Rev. Sydney Smith, the *Quarterly Review*, and the London *Times*. But his quotation from Dr. Johnson, "he would have *demeaned* himself strangely, had he," etc., as reported by Boswell, is far from being conclusively in point; since it is not at all obvious that "demeaned" may not there be synonymous with "conducted." Moreover, we have nothing approaching assurance that Dr. Johnson said "demeaned." Again and again, it may strongly be suspected, Boswell fathers on him expressions which he would have stoutly repudiated. "Catched," "serieses," "*of* consequence" for "*by* consequence," "he *confesses to* one bottle of port every day," and "let you and *I*, sir, go together," can hardly have fallen from Dr. Johnson's lips, though, if we are to trust his biographer, they did.

An interesting instance of self-criticism now demands to be noticed. Lord Macaulay, in his essay entitled "Lord Burghley's Life and Times," published in the *Edinburgh Review* for 1832, writes that "Cecil so *demeaned* himself as to avoid," etc., instead of which is found, in his collected *Essays*, "Cecil so *bemeaned* himself as to avoid," etc. That "demeaned" was designed to be understood pejoratively is evident from the later substitute for it; and it is likewise evident that Lord Macaulay must have come to object emphatically to it, or he would not have displaced it in favour of "bemeaned." To his thinking, probably, *debased* would imply greater disparagement than he deemed to be merited. At the same time, it was very unlike him, with his fastidious taste, to sanction a word so unusual as *bemean*. For unusual it is, though the quotations authorizing it which I have by me are twice as many as those given by Dr. Murray, whose quotations from Gataker, by the by, should be dismissed. See, for reasons, my *Recent Exemplifications of False Philology*. To what is there urged I may add that Gataker has not a syllable about Ridley's debasing himself, when Bishop of London; and history is silent as to his having done so. Furthermore, the edition of the *Abel Redevivus* (*sic*), from which the passage under comment is derived, swarms with typographical errors of every description.

In Charles Dibdin's *Waterman* (1774), Act ii, Scene i, a woman not only says, "I won't *bemean* myself by repeating his filthy name," but speaks approvingly of "people that know how to *bemean* themselves." Whether the speaker, Mrs. Bundle, is not to be taken, in her *bemean*, "comport," as simply malapropizing, after her wont, may be questionable.

Critics who arraign the usage with which this letter is mainly concerned are not a few. The pronouncements, in part or in full, of three of them—the latest noticeable for its ineptitude, and the others quoted from books seldom met with—here follow:

"*Demean.* This word is used by all the lower people, as well as by great numbers of their betters, to signify 'debase' or 'lessen.' It is also found in the same sense in bad writers. Richardson often [?] presents his readers with it in his emetic history of Pamela. Nay, if I mistake not, I have met with it, once or twice, in Swift; and I think it likewise once occurs in my Lord Bolingbroke's 'Oldcastle's Remarks upon English History.' If these two writers have really employed the word in that sense, it must undoubtedly have been through oversight. They could never be ignorant that *to demean* signifies 'to behave, to comport,' and not 'to debase' or 'lessen,'

"What causes the mistake in so many persons is the syllable *mean*. The word *mean*, signifying 'low' and 'contemptible,' and the word *meanness*, 'lowness,' they imagine, from thence, that *to demean* must signify 'to make contemptible,' or 'cast a meanness upon.'

"As to the substantive *demeanour*, it is a word the lower people are not acquainted with. If they were once to get hold on it, I make no doubt they would misapply it as much as they do the verb." Robert Baker, *Remarks on the English Language* (1770), p. 5 (ed. 1779).

"*Demean himself.* When the Illiterate are desirous of 'talking fine,' they use *demean himself*, instead of their accustomed Phrase, *let himself down*.

"The French, *demener*, means 'to conduct or behave.' It relates to Deportment, and never indicates Disgrace or Dishonor. The Vulgar use also *bemean*: 'He *bemeans* himself by such Conduct.'" Rev. Dr. Philip Withers, *Aristarchus* (1791), p. 208.

"*Demean.* This word is often used in the sense of 'debase'; a blunder which has no better apology for its existence than the fact that the second syllable of the word, when separated from the first, signifies something akin to 'debasement'; just as the second syllable of *deride*, when separated from the first, signifies 'taking a ride'! Or, again, which is more immediately applicable, as *meaning* might be used in the place of *grovelling*.

"The verb *demean* and the noun *demeanour* have a common signification; 'to behave, to conduct,' well or ill; 'behaviour, conduct,' good or bad.

"If an educated man were to set about attaching a new meaning to the verb, he would see the necessity of attaching a cognate meaning to the noun. If he made *demean* signify 'debase,' he must make *demeanour* signify 'debasement,' or 'base conduct'; the absurdity of which is, or should be, sufficient to dispose of the question." Mr. Edward S. Gould, *Good English* (1867), p. 44 (revised edition, 1880).

Baker little knew how largely the object of his scorn had won acceptance with authors of reputation; and Withers was, to all appearance, equally uninformed on that point, and also with regard to the respectability of *bemean*. As to Mr. Gould, his talk about "a blunder," with all the rest that he says, is quite of a piece with his ordinary lack of judgment in philologizing. Since he refuses to recognize that we have, whether acceptably or not, two verbs *demean*, his argument about giving a new sense to *demeanour* is inconsequent and nugacious. Imitating speculation of his stamp, we should ignore that the homonyms *defer*, 'postpone,' and *defer*, 'submit oneself,' have descended to us, respectively, from *differre* and *deferre;* we should see, in what are, undeniably, two verbs, only one verb, with a twofold meaning, and the later of them "a blunder"; and if we discovered that the *defer* corresponding to *deferre*, with its attendant substantive and adjective, came into our language first, we should be obliged, in case we endured *defer*, 'postpone,' to contend that *deference* and *deferential* ought to denote, in addition to their earlier significations, 'postponement,' and 'pertaining to postponement.' No more in dealing with words than in dealing with other things is it permissible to shut one's eyes to patent facts.

The annexed remarkable sample of erudition and perspicuity should not be passed by unrehearsed: "'Demean' (to debase oneself) is Old English *gemæ'ne*, common." Rev. E. Cobham Brewer, LL.D., *Errors of Speech and of Spelling* (1877), vol. i., p. 193.

In Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant's *New English*, where details are given of the diction of a novel by Miss L. E. Hawkins, published in 1811, we read: "The verb *demean* yourself is evidently a new phrase for *debase*." Not to mention many authors of inferior fame who flourished long prior to 1811, I have shown that this statement is invalidated by the pages of Samuel Richardson, Henry Brooke, Horace Walpole, Coleman and Garrick, Goldsmith, and Sheridan, and especially by those of Foote, whose plays Mr. Oliphant makes as if he had studied exhaustively. The pretentious author of *The New English* is here quite himself. He has not so much as consulted Archdeacon Todd's edition of Johnson's *Dictionary*.

Miss Evans, in *Adam Bede* (1859), and Sir George W. Dasent, twice in *Three to One* (1872), introduce *demean*, "debase," as though it were the special property of persons in humble life. But, as I have abundantly made manifest, it was not distinctly vulgar in the recent past; and, indisputably, it is not so at the present time. Still, on the whole, one can hardly be taxed with excess of nicety, if one chooses to follow the lead of Lord Macaulay, and gives it the cold shoulder.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, December 13, 1890.

Notes.

A COLLECTION of Mr. Howells's essays from the Editor's Study of *Harper's Magazine* will be issued this month by Harper & Bros., under the title, 'Criticism and Fiction.' The same firm announces 'Literary Industries,' largely autobiographical, by Hubert Howe Bancroft, and 'A Flying Trip around the World,' by Miss Elizabeth Bisland.

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G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'The New Theology,' by Prof. John Bascom; 'Gospel Criticism and Historical Christianity,' by the Rev. Orello Cone; 'The Industrial and Commercial Supremacy of England,' lectures by the late Prof. J. E. Thorold Rogers, edited by his son, Arthur Rogers; 'The Irish Element in Mediæval Culture,' from the German of H. Zimmer, translated by Jane Loring Edmands; 'Sir Philip Sidney and the Chivalry of England,' by H. R. Fox-Bourne; 'A Year in Portugal, 1889-'90,' by Dr. Geo. B. Loring, late United States Minister to Lisbon; 'The Story of Portugal,' by H. Morse Stephens; 'The Evolution of the Ordinance of 1787,' by J. A. Barrett; 'Politics and Property; or, Phronocracy,' by Henry Slack Worthington; 'Parties and Patronage,' by Lyon G. Tyler, President of William and Mary College; 'The Corporation Problem,' by William W. Cook; 'Application and Achievement, and Other Essays,' by J. Hazard Hartwell; 'The Leaf Collector's Hand-Book,' by Prof. Chas. F. Newhall; and a 'Popular Hand-Book and Atlas on Astronomy,' by Prof. Wm. Peck.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press 'On Newfound River,' a novel by Thomas Nelson Page.

Roberts Bros. will shortly publish 'My Three Score Years and Ten,' by Thomas Ball, the sculptor, and 'A Question of Love,' a Swiss story, by T. Combe.

A posthumous work, 'A Poet's Last Songs,' sonnets and lyrics by the late Henry Bernard Carpenter, will be brought out for the benefit of Mrs. Carpenter by J. G. Cupples, Boston.

Bernard Quaritch, London, has in preparation 'The Poetic Books of William Blake,' collected, with an explanation of their myth and meaning, by Edwin John Ellis and William Butler Yeats, in two volumes, containing more than 150 pages of facsimiles from poems engraved by Blake, with illustrations.

The 'Coöperative Index to Periodicals' for 1890, edited by Mr. W. I. Fletcher of the Amherst Library, has made its appearance (New York, 330 Pearl Street). It consists of two parts, subject and author, and is compressed into 140 pages. The change from quarterly to annual issues will, we believe, meet with approval.

'The Future of Electricity, or Babylon Electrified and Resurrected: A Dream of Science,' by A. Bleunard, translated from the French by F. L. White, just issued by Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, is the same as 'Babylon Electrified,' published by the same firm in 1889. A portrait of Mr. Thomas A. Edison is added to the new issue, but otherwise the text and illustrations are the same in both books.

The useful Camelot Series (A. Lovell & Co.) now includes in its catholic embrace the 'Comedies of Alfred de Musset,' translated and edited, with an introduction, by S. L. Gwynn. The translation, on the whole, is as well done, perhaps, as it could be done; for of all people in the world a stylist of Musset's power is the most difficult to do justice to in another tongue. For instance, "See is Know, Will is Can, and Dare is Have," may be a passable rendering of the French "Voir c'est Savoir; Vouloir c'est Pouvoir; Oser c'est Avoir"; but what can atone for the lost rhyme and lilt of the original? Apart from this inevitable loss in translation, the book is a distinct gain, for it offers the American reading public some charming plays by a master whom they unfortunately read but little. The introduction gives a rather brutally just account of Musset's life and a rather insular critique of his works. An occasional misprint, such as the repeated "*I*achimo" for "Iachimo" (p. 40), mars the good appearance of the print.

'One of Our Conquerors' has been added to the new (author's) edition of George Meredith's novels which Roberts Bros. are bringing out.

Mr. William Dallam Armes of the University of California has reprinted the late George Henry Lewes's 'Principles of Success in Literature' (San Francisco: Samuel Drew & Co.). In so doing he has sought to benefit students of literature and composition, and to furnish a class-room manual, following in this, as he says, the example of Prof. Albert S. Cook, several years ago. The essay originally appeared in the *Fortnightly Review*.

Ward, Lock & Co.'s "Minerva Library" has just been enlarged by the addition to it in one volume of Beckford's 'Vathek,' portions of his suppressed 'Dreams, Waking Thoughts and Incidents,' from the copy in the British Museum, and his letters on Spain and Portugal. This was a compilation well worth making, and it offers a great deal of entertainment for a small price.

Mr. William Houston, Librarian to the Ontario Legislature, has brought together 'Documents Illustrative of the Canadian Constitution,' with notes and appendixes (Toronto: Caswell & Co.). While the value of this collection as a mere work of reference is obvious and incontestable, the author has also had in mind its use in the historical seminary, as he points out in a sensible introduction. He has omitted all French documents except the capitulations of Quebec and Montreal, on the ground that the line of development of the Canadian Constitution leads back to the colonial governments of what is now the United States, by way of our Constitution, which Mr. Houston reprints after very careful collation, with original notes. In like manner, his chronological table is arranged with right and left-hand entries so as to show side by side the events for Canada and the United States. The chapters on Canadian Boundaries, Extradition, and Fisheries, again, appertain to both countries. In short, Mr. Houston's scholarly labors are of international utility, and his volume should find a place in all our libraries and in every well-regulated newspaper office.

'Barker's Facts and Figures for the Year 1891' (Frederick Warne & Co.) is a dictionary annual, beginning with Abbreviations and ending with Zinc. It would be impracticable to give here an idea of its contents beyond mention of a few heads, such as Armies, Church, Crime and Criminals, Exhibitions, Expectation of Life, Foreign Weights and Measures, Franco-Prussian War, Imports and Exports, Ireland, Life Assurance, London, Marriages, Occupations of the People, Population, Railways, Rowing, School Board, Suicides, Wages, Wills (of millionaires), Wool Trade, Wrecks, etc., etc. The cross-references are abundant. There are no proper names of persons among the entries, and the annual has no political complexion.

'The Care of the Sick' is a perfectly descriptive title of one of the latest and most valuable books upon that subject. It is drawn from the wide experience of the famous Prof. Billroth of Vienna, and has been satisfactorily translated by J. B. Endean (Scribner & Welford). The great surgeon gives the same attention to details as did the ancient sculptor, and with the same happy result. Trifles make perfection. Hospitals and families alike should profit by this volume, prepared for their special benefit and in no respect written above them. Nor does it descend to useless commonplace. It is clear and dignified in tone, and, charged with sympathy and competent knowledge, is interesting and useful in the highest degree, as we can testify from very careful examination.

In our regular service the medical officers are required to instruct carefully the men of the Hospital Corps, and certain other soldiers designated as company bearers, in the transportation and first aid of their comrades who may be disabled in action or otherwise. Many medical officers of the National Guard all over the country are zealously doing similar work. Both of these classes, and we may add the police surgeons of the great cities as well as the intelligent rank and file of all these organizations, will find in 'The Soldier's First-Aid Hand-Book,' by the late Capt. Wm. D. Dietz, Med. Dept. (John Wiley & Sons), a very valuable compendium of such instruction. This little book is a syllabus of Capt. Dietz's lectures to his own detachment, and contains in compact but clear form the outline of the information that such men should have. It is useful to the men as showing what they should know, and to the medical officers as a skeleton of such lectures. Line officers and others in charge of outlying parties, without medical aid, would find it useful. It is interleaved, has flexible covers, and is copiously indexed for easy reference.

In mentioning the publication of the William F. Allen Memorial Volume, the other day, we omitted to state that the price fixed for the few extra copies printed for sale is $2.25. They can be had of the Chairman of the Editorial Committee, Prof. David B. Frankenburger, Madison, Wis.

Schopenhauer's principal work, 'Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung,' has been added to the Reclam Library, and may now be had, *bound*, for a mark and a half, or less than forty cents. F. A. Brockhaus in Leipzig has also just issued a valuable 'Schopenhauer-Register,' containing in alphabetical arrangement references to passages in Schopenhauer's complete work on all conceivable topics. From Frauenstedt's 'Schopenhauer-Lexikon' this new work differs in containing no extracts, but only references, which, however, are much more copious than in the Lexicon.

Nearly four years ago we noticed Theodor Vetter's painstaking monograph on 'Der *Spectator* als Quelle der *Discurse der Maler*.' Dr. Vetter is now editing the 'Discurse' for the "Bibliothek älterer Schriftwerke der deutschen Schweiz," with annotations which designate, among other things, the respective authors of the essays in this Swiss imitation (1721-22) of the *Spectator* (Frauenfeld: J. Huber). A rubricated facsimile of the original title-page accompanies Part I. of the reprint. From the press of F. Schulthess, Zürich, we have received also a thin pamphlet from the pen of Dr. Vetter on a kindred theme, viz., 'Zürich als Vermittlerin englischer Literatur im achtzehnten Jahrhundert.' He finds traces of intellectual interchange with England as far back as 1536, partly through the visits of theological students from that country, partly in consequence of the clerical exodus due to the persecution of Queen Mary. When he reaches J. J. Bodmer, the founder of the above-mentioned *Discurse der Maler* and a writer under many names, Dr. Vetter has to deal with the most active propagator of English literature in Switzerland, and more than half the brochure is devoted to him.

The vexed question of transliteration from the Russian into English is taken up and learnedly discussed by Mr. J. Sumner Smith of the Yale Library, in the *New Englander* for May. He does not find himself wholly in accord with any of the recent attempts to secure uniformi-

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ty, such as the scheme of the American Library Association, that of the late Michael Heilprin, that of the United States Board on Geographic Names, or that advanced in *Nature* last year. The article is intended to provoke discussion.

Nature for March 26 prints the twenty-seventh of its biographical sketches of "Scientific Worthies," accompanied, as usual, by an excellent portrait on steel. The subject is Louis Pasteur.

A portrait of the late J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps and a view of his grave adorn the April number of *Shakespeariana* (New York: Leonard Scott Publication Co.).

The official organ of the American Photographic Conference and of the Society of Amateur Photographers of this city calls itself the *Photo-American Review*, and the first number is issued from No. 92 Fifth Avenue, New York. It is a bewildering maze of process-plates, chiefly scenic, and of more or less descriptive letter-press, followed by technical articles on photography, official notes of the Conference and the Society, a list of new books (apparently very carefully done), and an astonishing "review of 530 new books," of course in short measure and very perfunctory. The projectors of this well-printed magazine can at least plume themselves on having produced something unique.

Novel, too, is the *Courrier Français de l'Ouest Américain* (Chicago and Milwaukee), though it is now in its second year. The literary miscellany is quite overshadowed by the heliogravure and aquarelle plates, which include a good portrait of President Carnot. These have all been executed by Lemercier & Cie. of Paris, "the most important art firm of that capital," as we are told.

The classification and distribution of the native races of Brazil is the subject of the principal article in the last *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. Until very recently, according to the author, Dr. Paul Ehrenreich, it has been held impossible to bring order into the chaos of South American tribes and languages. The latest investigations, however, show that there is no extraordinary number of races, but that they all can be gathered into a few great families, of which he names eight. And instead of their being scattered in hopeless confusion over the continent, these families occupy certain definite districts or distinctly marked lines of migration from these centres. His conclusions have been reached mainly through the careful study and comparison of the various languages and dialects. That they are correct is the more probable from the fact of the extraordinary purity of the languages of most of the tribes of the interior. Many Indian words are in common use among the whites, but the Indians themselves, in some instances after a century's intercourse, have adopted only European terms for articles of barter. A map showing the distribution of the great families in Brazil and the contiguous countries accompanies the article.

Admirers of the late Dr. Howard Crosby may obtain a gratifying souvenir of this public-spirited citizen, an imperial photographic portrait of him having been added by Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, to that distinguished series which we very recently had occasion to refer to anew.

—The series of articles upon horses which Mr. H. C. Merwin has contributed to the *Atlantic* for some months past has been of an unusual character, and must have found many interested readers in the class to which such a subject appeals; but in the May number of the magazine the author takes up a phase of the matter in which the public is more generally concerned. He discusses the duties of the owner or user of the animal, and grounds them very rationally in the nature of the horse. He does not think that the horse is so sociable, sensible, or trustworthy as the dog, but finds the distinctive characteristic in the animal to be its nervousness; with this goes, of course, an unusual capacity for suffering, whether from brutal or neglectful treatment or a mere lack of understanding of the creature's nature. Mr. Merwin pleads for humane treatment in general, and, in fact, for that care which springs from affection or pride. He shows how much more a horse can be to a man than a mere article of property; but he reserves most of his force to persuade owners that horses used for pleasure, and therefore accustomed to a certain kind of care and work, should not be abandoned to the auction-room and its sequel of suffering when they become old or in any way useless as pleasure-horses. He contrasts the American mode of training, known as "gentling," with that old English mode which was called "breaking," and refers to its results in this country in the improvement of the trotting-horse. Altogether, the article is an admirably definite, reasonable, and well-directed discussion on a subject on which public feeling is still less humane and less effective than civilization requires; and the paper has the more weight because of the spirit of experience that gives to it a very practical character. Other articles out of the common course are an extremely technical one upon the teaching of arithmetic, a brief biography of Jeremy Belknap, the founder of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and some extracts from Richard Henry Dana's journal in China.

—The artistic novelty of the *Century* is a few pages of reproductions of the sketches, studies, and memoranda exhibited by the artists of this city at the Fellowcraft Club. They are in themselves interesting, and are used by the writer, who furnishes a brief introduction, to plead that the artists do their best work when unhampered by any consideration of the public taste. A second curious series of cuts is that illustrating a paper upon "Visible Sound," in which the experiments made by Margaret Watts Hughes by singing into a resonator, prepared for the purpose, are described, and the forms caused by the vibrations on a membrane spread with some unstable substance are pictured. These ocular equivalents of musical tones, however, it appears from the comment by Sophia B. Herrick, are suggestive rather than scientifically valuable. In the historical parts of the number the account of how the Confederate diplomatic agents in England and France found themselves handicapped by the place of slavery in the Southern system, is told by Mr. Bigelow, and the diary of Minister Dallas is put under contribution for a view of the Russian Court in 1837. A sympathetic biography of Louisa May Alcott, a rather fantastically written travel and character sketch from the Bulgarian political field, and a sporting article on Florida fishing, give variety to the number.

—*Scribner's* is much devoted to fiction, but we find a readable article upon "The Ship's Company," another descriptive of the scenes and character of Broadway, and yet a third upon Shakspere as an actor. In all of these the cuts are the main thing, and the text is principally remarkable for the clever way in which it stretches itself out without boring either the writer or the reader. In particular, the paper upon Shakspere is a marvel of bubble-blowing. What we know of him as an actor is so little that it could be told in a very short paragraph, and consequently the author of this long article has naturally written of many other matters; but what an effort he makes to keep to his subject may be judged by this sentence, upon the mention of Shakspere as acting before Elizabeth in 1594: "It is quite possible that her Majesty might have desired to see for herself something of the qualities of one of her subjects who, she was probably well aware, had already acquired considerable reputation, and who, she may have reflected, was destined, by the exercise of his surpassing powers, of which he had given substantial evidence, to add undying lustre to the period of her reign." This is about as useless writing as there could well be, and the paper is full of similar stupidities. Mr. Davis does much better with "Broadway"; he is lively and sketchy, and has a feeling for the life of the pavement, and it must be acknowledged there is more character in his text than in the illustrations. The "Transfer of the Temples of Ise," by Mr. House, describes the ceremony of carrying the sacred relics of Japanese religion from one set of temples to another duplicating the first, which takes place every twenty years; and it contains the information that it has been suggested to the Japanese Government to send over the old temples to be set up at the Chicago World's Fair in the Japanese exhibit. The fiction, by Mr. Stimpson, Octave Thanet, and Mr. Sullivan, is of very even quality and excellent workmanship.

—A most interesting discussion of the "Rectification of Chronology by means of Ancient Eclipses," by Prof. John N. Stockwell of Cleveland, Ohio, appears in the *Astronomical Journal*, No. 240, April 21. According to Mr. Stockwell, an entirely new feast is to be made of some of the most important dates of ancient history. We give below the dates arrived at by Mr. Stockwell. The chronologist by profession will of course take many things into account besides reports of eclipses; but it is interesting to see what conclusions a rigid astronomical consideration, pure and simple, leads to:

"*First*, Jerusalem was destroyed by Titus in the year 69 A. D. instead of 70 A. D.

"*Second*, Augustus died in August, 13 A. D. instead of 14 A. D.

"*Third*, The last year of confusion in the Roman calendar was 47 B. C. instead of 46 B. C.

"*Fourth*, Cæsar's Spanish War was in the years 47 and 46 B. C.

"*Fifth*, Cæsar was assassinated in March, 45 B. C., instead of 44 B. C.

"*Sixth*, Jerusalem was taken by Pompey in 65 B. C., and by Herod in 38 B. C.

"*Seventh*, Herod's eclipse occurred in the year 5 B. C., September 15; and Herod died early in the year 4 B. C.

"*Eighth*, The Persian invasion of Greece by Xerxes occurred in the year 481 B. C., instead of 480 B. C.; and

"*Ninth*, The Era of the Olympiads commenced in July, 777 B. C., instead of 776 B. C."

—In the *Figaro* of March 21 there is a brief and interesting study, by M. Edmond Poirier, entitled 'Comment meurent les Bonaparte.' For the most part they die early and die in exile. Only three of the race have closed their eyes in France. None of them have attained extreme old age. Charles Bonaparte, the father of the Emperor, died at the age of thirty-eight, Napoleon at fifty-two, Caroline at fifty-six, Pauline at forty-four, and Eliza at forty-three. Of the next generation the Duc de Reichstadt died at twenty-one; the two daughters of Joseph at fifty-three and at thirty-

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eight; of the children of Lucien, the Prince Pierre reached sixty-three, but the Prince of Canino died at fifty-four, and Prince Lucien at forty-four; the eldest son of Louis, who was to have been Napoleon's successor, died untimely at the age of eight; the second, Louis, at twenty-seven, and his son, the Prince de Monfort, at thirty-three. These names and dates are as given by M. Poirier. Some of the dates are open to question, and there are omissions in the list of names. As to his main thesis, that the Bonapartes are hereditary arthritics, M. Poirier seems to go upon more solid ground. He finds the family to have been markedly liable to gout and its kindred or accompanying diseases—rheumatism, affections of the heart, diabetes, cancer. The father of Napoleon died of cancer of the stomach, as did Napoleon himself; so, also, according to M. Yung, Lucien. Caroline, too, succumbed to the same disease, and M. Poirier, who puts no trust in the stories that appear in the pages of some reputable authorities, believes that Pauline met the same fate. Thus there are four or five of the family who died of cancer of the stomach alone. Besides these, Prince Pierre died of a cardiac disorder resulting from rheumatism; and diabetes appeared in Jerome and his descendants. King Jerome himself was carried off by a gangrenous pneumonia, which was an accident of his disorder, and his son was equally diabetic. M. Poirier does not mention the stone which caused the death of Napoleon III., probably for good reasons.

—In speaking of M. Édouard Drumont's 'Dernière Bataille,' we ventured to express the hope that the title might possibly be meant to convey a hint that the long and foolish anti-Semitic campaign of its author was drawing to an end, in spite of his announcement of a 'Europe Juive' in preparation. A new volume by M. Drumont has just been published with a title even more promising than the last, viz: 'Le Testament d'un Anti-Sémite.' Apropos of the Jews, it may be worth while to say, though the mention comes a little late, that there was a very good article about them by M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of February 15. According to this writer, the whole number of the Jews is about eight or nine millions, one-half of whom are encamped in Russia. The centre of gravity of Israel is somewhere on the borders of old Poland, or of Austria-Hungary. In the east of Europe the Jewish population increases by the constant excess of births over deaths; in the west, chiefly by immigration. There are about 80,000 of them in France, of whom a full half are in Paris. Of these, however, M. Leroy-Beaulieu says nothing, or next to nothing.

—At a meeting on Saturday of the Baltimore Committee of the women interested in raising a fund for the Medical School of the Johns Hopkins University upon condition of its receiving women upon the same terms as men, it was announced that the fund now handed over to the Trustees amounts to $111,300. It was also announced that Miss Garrett has offered an additional hundred thousand dollars to the Trustees on condition that they shall have in their hands and shall set apart for the use of the Medical School by February 1, 1892, the remaining sum necessary to complete the required five-hundred-thousand-dollar endowment. Miss Garrett's offer is accompanied by the further provision that if at any time the women studying in the Medical School shall not enjoy all its privileges or shall not be admitted to all its prizes, dignities, and honors on the same terms as men, this hundred thousand dollars shall revert to her or to her heirs. The Trustees have accepted Miss Garrett's offer, with its conditions attached, and have pledged themselves, individually, to endeavor to obtain the $219,000 which, in addition to the women's fund and to the sum bequeathed to the Medical School by Dr. Baxley, remains to be collected. This they ought to have no trouble in doing: the friends of advanced medical education in this country ought to show a grateful appreciation of Miss Garrett's generous initiative, and the opening of the Johns Hopkins Medical School in 1892 ought to be quickly made a matter of certainty.

—"The run Ibsen has had this winter among the select few in London," writes a correspondent in that city, "is not yet at an end. The last of his plays attempted (still another is announced for next month) is 'Hedda Gabler,' which was performed for the first time at the Vaudeville Theatre in the Strand on April 20. The play proved much the most dramatic in the series, and the performance was by far the most finished, the merit of Ibsen's interpreters hitherto being intention rather than accomplishment; but that which makes it specially interesting to Americans is the fact that its managers and leading performers were two young American actresses, Miss Elizabeth Robins and Miss Marian Lea, who have for several years past been living and working in London. Both are women who have really studied their art, who believe that on the stage knowledge counts for more than impulse, and who, for that very reason, probably, have not met with the success they deserve in the English theatre, that home of sentimental amateurism. Miss Robins has been seen in minor parts in two other of the Ibsen plays, in 'The Doll's House,' where she appeared as *Mrs. Linden*, and in 'The Pillars of Society,' where, as the maiden aunt, she may be said to have redeemed the play. She has also, at intervals, been included in the regular programme of the Shaftesbury and Avenue Theatres. Miss Marian Lea made a decided hit a few years ago upon her first appearance as *Audrey* in Lady Archibald Campbell's 'As You Like It'; but since then she has had small chance to test her powers except in an afternoon performance of 'Mademoiselle de Belle-Isle,' in which she showed no little strength. In 'Hedda Gabler' both have scored a distinct success, already recognized by the London dramatic critics. Nothing could have been better than Miss Robins's *Hedda*, the restless, bored, jealous, essentially modern woman who, because she was tired of dancing, married the first man who crossed her path at the moment, and speedily repented it, and who, for the sake of a sensation, plays recklessly with and ruins the lives of her first lover and the woman he now loves; nothing better than Miss Lea's *Mrs. Elvsted*, the timid, gentle, weak woman who, in her weakness, married for a home, and then, when too late, found happiness and strength to live her own life in the work and devotion of a man who is not her husband. It is doubtful whether 'Hedda Gabler' could ever appeal to the general public; but if the five performances which these two enterprising young actresses have given will, as they ought, bring them into greater prominence on the London stage, the London playgoing public will have much to be thankful for."

THE ARISTOTLE PAPYRUS.

Aristotle on the Constitution of Athens. Edited by F. G. Kenyon, M.A., etc. Second edition. Printed by order of the Trustees of the British Museum. 1891. Pp. lii., 190.

THERE seems to be no reasonable doubt that, in the writing on the *verso* of papyrus No. CXXXI. of the British Museum, the modern world has recovered, in a transcript made about 80-90 A. D., the much-quoted but long-lost description of the Athenian State ascribed by the ancients to Aristotle, and always looked upon as the most authoritative work of its kind. The presence in this manuscript, in an appropriate context, of practically all the eighty-five or more extant fragments of the book—preserved in more than 240 quotations made, at first, second, third, and even at fifth hand, by many writers at least from Didymus (B. C. 30) onward—creates an overwhelming presumption in favor of this identification. Whether the original treatise was by Aristotle or by an immediate pupil, as Rose has maintained, is quite another question. It can be proved, however, we believe—though this is not the place to do it—that the historian Philochorus, writing before B. C. 306, or less than twenty years after the composition of the work, quoted it as Aristotle's, sometimes to supplement, sometimes to controvert, its statements. This testimony as to its authorship, which is earlier than any hitherto pointed out, should, if demonstrated, have great weight in settling the question.

On the *recto*, the best side for writing, are the accounts of a farm-bailiff in Egypt—his name, Didymus, but more especially the name of his master's father, Pollux, will give rise to curious theories—for a part of the eleventh year of Vespasian (A. D. 78-9). The editor dates the transcript at a time when these accounts had lost their value, *i. e.*, about 100 A. D. The fact, however, that foreign matter previously written is allowed to break the continuity of the narrative (c. 25), instead of being detached, seems to show that the writer desired to retain the writing on the other side of that part of the papyrus, *i. e.*, the opening columns of the accounts. The owner of the manuscript wished to keep these accounts unbroken; hence the transcript must have been made not very long after 79 A. D.—nearer to this date than to 100 A. D.

The beginning of the treatise is lost, and the final columns are sadly mutilated. But the fact that all the quotations are here, or are otherwise accounted for, shows that little is missing, and that we have the work in its original unabridged form—an inference borne out by its literary features. An historical sketch takes up about two-thirds of the text. Here the writer passes rapidly in review the several phases of the constitutional history of Athens from the period before Draco down to the Restoration in 403 B. C., dwelling very fully on the work and reforms of Solon (cc. 5-12), and on the constitutional changes, actual and proposed, after the Sicilian disaster (cc. 29-41). In the last third of the book (cc. 42-63; coll. 31-37) a condensed but lucid description is given of the machinery of the State at the time of writing (between 328 B. C. and 324 B. C.): it begins with an account of the enrolment of citizens and of the regulations about the ephebi; then the various public offices and boards, with a few important omissions, are described, including—in the following order—the Senate, the prytans, proedri, treasurers, auditors, city inspectors, commissioners of highways, market overseers, inspectors of weights and measures, the police board, judges in petty cases, arbitrators, public secretaries, cultus-ministers, archons (very fully), athlothetæ, generals, and subordinate military officials, etc. The work closes with a very minute

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account of the jury-courts and their equipment, and of legal procedure.

In the summary at c. 41, the writer divides the constitutional history of Athens, after the establishment of the state by Ion, into eleven periods, or epochs of change, of which the account of only the first is lost, viz.: First, Theseus, a slight deviation from absolute monarchy; second, Draco, the law first recorded; third, Solon, democracy founded; fourth, Peisistratus, tyranny; fifth, Cleisthenes, democracy reëstablished in a more pronounced form; sixth, after the Persian wars, the revived Areopagus; seventh, the epoch introduced by Aristeides and Ephialtes, in which the Areopagus is reduced in power (B. C. 462–1), and the state, following unworthy party-leaders, degenerates, mainly because of its naval development; eighth, the rule of the Four Hundred; ninth, the renewed democracy; tenth, the Thirty and the Ten; eleventh, the Restoration and the subsequent period, marked by constant increase of the power of the people. The party-leaders in these changes were: Of the people, Solon, Cleisthenes, Xanthippus, Themistocles and Aristeides, Pericles, Cleon, Cleophon; of the better class, the rich and the well-born, Peisistratus, Miltiades, Cimon, Thucydides (son of Melesias), Nicias, Theramenes. The writer's favorites are, after the men of an earlier date, Thucydides, Nicias, and Theramenes.

Throughout the work there is definite information as to dates—over forty explicit datings, by archons and by numerical computations; the narrative is brightened by ten or a dozen anecdotes, of which three are new; there are quotations from the poems of Solon, with seventeen new verses, and from patriotic scolia or banquet songs; now and then a maxim of worldly wisdom, with touches of humor such as the reader of Aristotle's moral works might expect. The book is not a dogmatic treatise, nor yet a collection of notes: it is rather an historical and descriptive essay, and its style is natural, spontaneous, clear, and flowing—the opposite of jejune and crabbed—with anacolutha and other evidences of an unstudied art; a style that shows more of unconscious regard for literary form, and in particular for the rules of Isocratean composition, than marks the other extant writings of Aristotle. Indeed, if this work be accepted as Aristotle's, our conception of the literary art of the Stagirite is enlarged by it, and we can begin to understand what Cicero meant by his *suavitas* and *flumen orationis aureum*, and that Plutarch was not wholly wrong when he asserted that in his 'Constitutions' the style of Aristotle was vigorous and graceful. The skill with which the writer can tell a story is nowhere more apparent than in the three new anecdotes, viz., the scene at the torture of Aristogeiton (c. 18), the account of Themistocles's device for arousing Ephialtes to action against the Areopagus (c. 25), and the undatable incident, in which Eumelides (hardly Eumeleides) was chief actor, that led to the assumption by the Demus of certain absolute powers exercised by the Senate (c. 45).

The interesting and important question of the author's sources receives little light from any direct statements of his own. Solon's poems are repeatedly quoted, and yet the section of continuous quotations (c. 12) looks oddly like an interpolation, when one notes its context; of course, it may have been the author's interpolation. More than once the writer appeals to the testimony of inscriptions, and, in his citations of decrees, there is, incidentally, an interesting proof of his fidelity: the only instances—out of eighteen or nineteen final clauses with ὅπως—of ὅπως ἄν with the subjunctive, the idiom in Attic inscriptions, are found in two quoted decrees (cc. 29, 30). He often cites and sometimes criticises divergent views on historical matters, classifying authorities, but—except once—does not give names (pp. 6, 16, 19, 26, 41, 46, 48, 80). Herodotus is named in c. 14, and is followed, with interesting variations, elsewhere (c. 20). Thucydides appears to be controverted at c. 18, and is followed at c. 33, but is never named. Theopompus was probably in the writer's mind at c. 27 (cf. Plut. *Cim.* 10), and elsewhere, though he can hardly have been followed in cc. 28 41. Androtion is verbally quoted in c. 22; but the fact that his view of Solon's seisachthy is not controverted at c. 6, suggests that his 'Atthis' had not gained general currency before this treatise was written. Mr. Kenyon's uncertainty as to Androtion's date is not justifiable; Androtion can have been none other than Isocrates's pupil, Demosthenes's opponent, the author of the decree edited by Schäfer in *Rhein. Mus.* 33, 418 ff. There are traces of Ephorus, of Cleidemus and other writers of Atthides, and now and then a reminiscence of Isocrates, but the author appears always to frame his own account and to draw his own inferences. His spirit is that of a judicial observer and man of affairs, of pronounced aristocratic sympathies; his judgments, if sometimes partisan in coloring, are not petty nor marked by fantastic conceits; he exposes the weaknesses of popular government, but fails not to appreciate its excellences: "the many," he says, "are less open to corruption than the few"—a doctrine unlike that of Plato's remnant.

Athenian history, in its main features, will remain unaffected by this discovery, but in many of its details it gains, with the new light on dark places, unlooked-for definiteness and richness. Some of the more salient of these new aspects should be here mentioned. Though almost as many difficult questions are raised as are solved, and though all unsupported assertions should be put to the test of a rigorous criticism, Attic chronology at least is more certain than it was. The archon-list, for example, has been notably enlarged: we have, besides full confirmation of old names, the following new ones: Epilycus, an ancient polemarch; Aristaechmus, B. C. 621-0 (?)—Draco was not archon at the time of his legislation; Hegesias, B. C. 555-4; Philoneos, B. C. 527-6; Harpactides, B. C. 511-0; Hermucreon, B. C. 501-0; Telesines, B. C. 487-6; Hypsechides, B. C. 481-0 (not the editor's Hypsichides); Mnesilochus (not Mnasilochus), B. C. 411, for two months. Our information as to the history of many offices receives bewildering accessions and modifications. About the archons we are told that they were created in this order: first King, then Polemarch, Archon, and six Thesmothetae (the last probably about 680 B. C.). The use of the lot in designating the nine archons was introduced by Solon, but choice was made only from forty candidates previously selected; this arrangement held, with slight modifications—one hundred picked candidates instead of forty—down to a very late period. The Senate, under Draco of 401 members, chosen by lot, under Solon of 400, under Cleisthenes and after of 500, originally had summary jurisdiction over the lives of citizens. The history of Athenian government is the history of the gradual appropriation on the part of the Demus of all powers and privileges. Cylon antedates Draco, who, political reformer as well as jurist, is said to have committed the State to all persons bearing arms, an assertion that has the look of an anachronism. The timocratic classification of the citizens ascribed to Solon was in partial use earlier; Solon's seisachthy was an actual cancelment of debts, public and private.

There is much new light on Peisistratus and his sons. Before the Alcmæonidæ, one Cedon was famed in scolia as the foe of tyrants. The account of the conspiracy of Harmodius and Aristogeiton differs in some essential particulars from that of Thucydides. Aristogeiton was cruelly tortured by Hippias and slain by the tyrant's own hand in a frenzy of rage. Cleisthenes's demes were not necessarily one hundred in number: having first organized the demes as local political units, he grouped them into thirty larger units called trittyes—of which ten were near Athens, ten on the shore, and ten in the interior; each of the ten new tribes was then made up of three trittyes drawn by lot from the three districts. The Areopagus had extraordinary powers from the Persian wars to B. C. 462, when it was shorn of them by Ephialtes and Themistocles. Aristeides did not throw open the archonship to all the classes of citizens; the first zeugite to be chosen was Mnesitheides, in B. C. 457; the thetic class as such never could furnish archons even in the writer's time. It was by Aristeides's advice that the people flocked in to Athens from their country homes, with the result that, not many years after the Persian wars, more than 20,000 persons were on the state's pay-rolls. Pericles was not prominent as a statesman until about 455 B. C., and in 451-0 B. C. carried through his much-discussed law prescribing purity of descent as a condition of citizenship. The Peloponnesian war is hardly mentioned except in fixing a date, and notables like Hyperbolus, Alcibiades, and Peisander are not even named; but in the long and picturesque account of the period between 411 B. C. and 403 B. C., there are many items in general supplementary of Thucydides, Lysias, and Xenophon, though in not a few cases irreconcilable with their statements. There seems to be no place for the dramatic scene of the arrest of Theramenes. The final overthrow of the Thirty and the reconciliation with the secessionists at Eleusis took place two years, not immediately, after the Restoration. The sketch of this decade is a good example of vigorous though unpolished writing, and is rendered attractive by the deeds and sayings of the worthies Rhinon and Archinus. The 'Politics' had already taught us that this period, with its abortive attempts at constitutional organization, was a favorite one with Aristotle.

In the second part of this treatise, with its multitude of details, there is less that is actually new, but everything is clearly though tersely put. It is a vast advantage that we now have the Aristotelian quotations in their own context, rid of confusing accretions, and this part of the book is of incomparable value, giving, as it does, definite and trustworthy information on many dark points; in particular, we have satisfactory news about the ephebi, dates of elections, the duties of a host of officials. Scattered through the work are many bits of such information, as on the pay of officers from archon to dicast, on the civil-list in general, on the provision for orphans and incapables, on legal fictions. It is interesting to be told that Solon's debasement of the coinage was called "expansion of the currency," and to read of what may have been "blocks of ten" in the jury courts—an invention of the excellent Anytus.

The 'Constitution' is a surprise in its omissions as well as in its new yields. We miss,

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for example, an account of the important regulations as to legislative procedure adopted under and after Euclid, and of the important changes in the Athenian financial system in the fourth century B. C., which figure in Philochorus; the nomophylaces, by Grote ascribed to Pericles and Ephialtes, are now recognized to be a very much later institution, but surely the nomothetae were important—quite as significant as, at least, the astynomi, whose first duty named was to see that flute-girls should not receive more than two drachms for their job, and that the city scavengers should not dump rubbish within the city walls.

Mr. Kenyon has shown great skill in deciphering the manuscript, and his treatment of historical matters is in the main judicious. But, as he himself admits, an *editio princeps* cannot be final. The text bears evidence of hurried preparation or revision in not a few blunders in grammar and in restorations which, palæographically possible, are improbable from the point of view of language. A familiarity with the corroborative or corrective evidence of Attic inscriptions, and with what has been doing in Germany in late years on Greek constitutional history and antiquities, would have made his notes, some of which are wofully out of date, much more valuable; he might have corrected Schömann by Schömann and Boeckh by Boeckh. There is both too much and too little information about the manuscript readings. The note on abbreviations (p. lii) is inadequate; several of the signs have a somewhat wider range, and others are used more arbitrarily, than we are told. There are gaps in the report of the readings of the original text, which was not always intelligently revised by the ancient hand, showing vagaries in spelling, some of which are interesting as throwing light on the pronunciation of Greek in Egypt about A. D. 80–90. The editor's own text also exhibits inconsistencies and an erratic orthography. The facsimile shows that sometimes—not often—the readings given in the printed text with no *caveat* are not absolutely certain, but only possible. Every instance of this sort should have been religiously pointed out. In the original text are not a few corrupt passages, and the temptations to emend the papyrus readings are numerous. Proper names require overhauling. At p. 11, 5–7, perhaps read τούτου [ἔδει εἶναι καὶ] κτλ μέχρι Εὐθύνου; p. 27, 14, τρεῖς, if right, belongs with ἑβδομήκοντα, l. 13, not with ἑξήκοντα; p. 36, 10, διαψηφισμόν (cf. ἀποψηφίζειν, Dem. *Cor.* 132); p. 45, 8–11 cannot be right; p. 55, 2, οὐκ (ἂν) συνέπιπτεν; p. 76, 4, ὥστ' ἐξῆν or ὅπως ἐξῇ; p. 98, 7, πρεσβεῖς (οὖν) or (δέ), and often (τόν) with τόνδε τρόπον; p. 101, 13, πρὶν ἀναγραφῆναι or πρὶν ἂν ἀναγράφηται (cf. p. 149, 8); p. 116, 5, erase τ', or read καὶ οὗτοι ἀφεῖναι (cf. p. 138, 11), etc. And there are many places where a better restoration seems probable than Mr. Kenyon's; *e. g.*, p. 2, 6, ἦν γὰρ [τότ'] ἡ (cf. the probable ἔπεμπον τό[τε] μεθ' ὅπλων, p 48, 16); p. 16, 4, 5, οἱ [βουλό]μενοι βλασφημεῖν (cf. p. 79, 7); p. 16, 19, μέμνηται (cf. p. 28, 24); p. 43, 3, τῶν δὲ κοινῶν [αὐτὸς ἐπι]μελήσεσθαι (cf. p. 43, 17); p. 44, 16, δ[ι'] ἡσυχίας or τ[ὴν] ἡσυχίαν; p. 44, 26—45, 1, ἔμεινε [κύριος ὢν καὶ ὑπό]τ' ἐκπέσοι (there seems to be hardly room for the tempting ἐν τῇ ἀρχῇ); p. 45, 16, ἔφ[ευ]γεν; p. 71, 7, ἐφαιρεθέντας; p. 80, 20, Πυθοδώρου το[ῦ Πολυζή]λου; p. 99, 7, συλλαβόντες [δὲ καὶ Δ]ημάρετον; p. 135, 8, ἀλλ' ἢ τοῦ (cf. p. 130, 14). In some of these suggestions we observe that we have been anticipated.

Many of the editor's remarks and notes need revision. To the list of absent fragments, add No. 360 (p. xv, 21). The sketch of early conditions on pp. xx xxii is fuller than the text bears out. The demes were combined by Cleisthenes into trittyes, not the trittyes subdivided into demes (p. xxxii). The Thirty were not known as "tyrants" in their own generation (p. xliii). The scholiast on Ar. *Nub.* 37 can hardly have got his passage from Harpocration (p. 56); in such cases the scholiast is ultimately the great Didymus, from whom, through Pamphilus, Harpocration himself drew. An inferior text of Pollux is quoted at p. 177, and the MSS. of Lex. Cantab. read ἐπιχειροτονίαν (p. 112). The note on Nicomedes is inept (p. 61); the word means 'masterful in counsel,' like N cobulus, not 'conqueror of the Medes.' Though θυρίδες (p. 125) commonly means 'windows,' its use here, in the sense of 'doors,' seems to be sustained by [Arist.] *Oec.* ii 4; but certainly all that the regulation signifies is that doors (and windows) should not swing into the street; they might—set back in a vestibule—swing towards it.

With all its blemishes, however, the text as furnished by Mr. Kenyon has its permanent value, and must form the basis of all future work on this book, of which the editions promised by Diels, Kaibel and Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, Sandys, and perhaps Herwerden, will be but the beginning. A decade or two must pass before this memorable discovery—the most extraordinary of its kind since the Renaissance—can be properly appreciated in all its bearings; for some time to come we shall swing back and forth between the extremes of opinion as to the authorship and ultimate value of this 'Constitution of Athens.' The final result will be not only a richer and more intelligent knowledge of Athenian history and political and legal antiquities, and of certain aspects of classical historical literature, but also the introduction of greater order and organization into much of the later derived literature, of which this treatise is a sort of key, and a distinct clearing of the atmosphere in that already popular branch of classical research known as the study of sources.

RECENT FICTION.

Juggernaut: A Veiled Record. By George Cary Eggleston and Dolores Marbourg. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1891.

The Sardonyx Seal: A Romance of Normandy. By Belle Gray Taylor. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

"*Down the O-h-i-o.*" By Charles Humphrey Roberts. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1891.

The House of the Wolf. By Stanley J. Weyman. Longmans, Green & Co.

The Blind Musician. By Vladimir Korolenko. Translated from the Russian by Aline Delano. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Youma. By Lafcadio Hearn. Harper & Brothers.

The Heriots. By Sir Henry Stewart Cunningham. Macmillan & Co.

"*O Thou My Austria.*" Translated from the German of Ossip Schubin by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Miss Eaton's Romance. By Richard Allen. Dodd, Mead & Co.

With the Best Intentions. By Marion Harland. Charles Scribner's Sons.

'JUGGERNAUT' is the grimly suggestive title of a political-social novel of New York and Washington life. There is very little by-play in its dramatic action, only enough to relieve the two intensely individual characters who move swiftly to the end. These characters present psychologic problems that are not satisfactorily solved in the dénouement. At least, there will be a difference of opinion as to the correctness of their solution. Given a young man with high aims that seek altruistic ends, of measureless ambition, but with a supreme belief in his power to achieve success, and it is difficult to conceive that he should suddenly commit moral suicide at the first temptation. To be sure, the temptation was a terrible one, and presented itself, as temptations have a way of doing, at a critical point in his career; but the scarcely perceptible struggle was soon over, and in the hours of meditation and retrospect that followed, there is no apparent desire to revoke his decision. And yet, years after, at the close of a career of political chicanery, dishonor is said to have been a hardly acquired thing with him, and "honesty and uprightness were innate." But, "with the woman, things were different." The character of the woman is more subtly conceived than that of the man, but a false note is struck towards the last that jars upon one's sense of harmony. A beautiful, impulsive girl, having no knowledge of his crime, marries this moral suicide. With absolute faith in and reverence for her husband, she blindly follows his lead, feeling a naïve delight in the unfolding of her powers. Her beauty, her wit, her naïveté are with fatal facility used as instruments for the furtherance of his political ends. Blinded by exceptional success, the husband gradually neglects his wife, and tries to stifle her craving for affection, coolly laying upon her the interdict of child-bearing, so intolerant is he of anything that may hinder the gratification of his insatiable ambition. From such a state of affairs a revolt on the part of the woman was inevitable; but the rapidity of her downward career, with its sordid accompaniments, comes as a shock of surprise to the reader, for neither her self-revelations nor the disclosing hand of the authors have prepared for such a radical change in her moral being. This, with the inscrutable attitude which she assumes towards her repentant husband, and maintains till her death, would presuppose an unbalance of reason itself; but we are forbidden this natural explanation by the apparent desire on the part of the authors to achieve a more striking dramatic effect.

The exhilaration produced by a sojourn on the romantic coast of Normandy may be communicated to others through the medium of speech or written sign; but its sparkling effervescence is apt to be quickly lost, and in a novel of three hundred pages, even though its ingredients are composed of sinister hypnotic experiments and thrilling escapes from a variety of dangers, unless there is good literary quality as a basis, the effect produced on the reader is far from exhilarating. The story of 'The Sardonyx Seal' might have been very interesting as an episode, but in its present form, and weakened by inverted sentences and needless French words and phrases, it soon palls upon the taste.

The story of 'Down the O-h-i-o' has a free movement and a racy flavor not unlike the old river song. The times of which it treats are the uneasy days of slavery, and the scene of its main action that borderland of Ohio so favorable to the successful working of the "underground railroad." A sketch of one of the stations on this road is very well done. The heroine, a little waif from Pittsburgh floating down the river in search of an aunt who lived in the "Ohio country," finds a home among the Quakers, in a primitive community; and as her blithe and vigorous nature develops, she presents an amusing contrast to the steady-go-

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ing Friends, the worldly side of whose character is pithily expressed in the old saying, "Godward he was a very fine man; but manward he was just a leetle twistical." It is true that the vagaries of the human, not to say the feminine, mind are past understanding, but there is an unnecessary mystification in the fact that such a self-reliant, clear-seeing young woman as the heroine of this story should consent to an elopement with a stranger and a charlatan. Aside from this fault the plot is well constructed. The style is somewhat uneven, and at times awkward, but the story maintains a wholesome quality throughout.

'The House of the Wolf' purports to be an English version of a French autobiography written in 1620 by the Vicomte Caylus, who, as a youth of seventeen, chanced to spend in Paris a single night—that night the 24th of August, 1572, the awful one of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. For historic pedigree one is referred to an incident of the massacre related by De Thou, who tells how on that evil night a certain man, falling into the power of his deadly foe, was led out of harm and dismissed to a place of safety through very shame of the occasion and through respect for a courageous enemy. This pretty episode is the foundation of the pretty romance before us. Three striplings ride to Paris to warn of danger the affianced husband of their kinswoman. Their adventures and the happy outcome of their journey are told in language touched with quaintness, and with an artistically hidden art that is graceful and attractive. The story makes a delicately pleasing contribution to that class of books which gilds for our gilded youth the pill of history.

'The Blind Musician' is a sketch called by its author "a psychological study," wherein he essays a description of the feelings of a person blind from birth. Mr. George Kennan's introduction bespeaks the reader's interest in the Russian author on literary grounds, and others as well. He is one of a group of young Russian writers whose careers have been interrupted by the heavy hand of Government. Although Korolenko is not specifically a political writer, his stories have held enough of "Young Russia" in their views to draw upon him repeated sentences of banishment and the censor's veto. The present sketch is further introduced by a letter from Mr. Anagnos of the Perkins Institute for the Blind. The story itself is less a story than a searching and touching analysis of the inner experiences of one who has never known sight. It spares no pang, but it also carries a hope in the tranquillity and usefulness attained by the hero. The brusque realism, the sharp outlines, of many Russian stories are not wanting here, but not all Russian stories have the tenderness or the artistic quality of this one. The style is poetic and somewhat mystical; the translation is smooth and sympathetic; the illustrations, though graceful, are superfluous in so slight a story, and the lustrous paper is well fitted to furnish new subjects for studies of the blind.

'Youma' is the story of a West Indian slave. The scene is laid in Martinique; the dénouement occurs in 1848, just before the news of the abolition of slavery reached the island, too late to save the beautiful Youma and her friends from a tragic doom. Mr. Hearn writes with an exquisite sensibility to the literary resources of his chosen theme. His fine feeling for nature, poetry, pathos, romance finds a happy field in the tropical life he draws with a pen from which truly "flows the color of the dawn." It is gratifying to find that his literary sense is fast overtaking his æsthetic sensitiveness. The rank luxuriance of style in his earlier 'Chita' has been pruned to a saner richness in 'Youma,' and gives hope of further progress in the same wise way.

The first chapters of novels make a class of literature by themselves. Like the curtain-lifter at the theatre, they often bear no relation to the main entertainment; but that is precisely the business of the curtain-lifter, whereas the opening pages of the novel may be supposed to be set in a certain key which indicates what is to follow. The seasoned reader of fiction will not be betrayed into judgment, much less hope, by the initial pages of his author. The unseasoned reader will think, upon beginning 'The Heriots,' that he has embarked upon a novel of the Norris type—a novel of construction. We are bound to say that he will not find this, equally bound to add that he will find what will very possibly please him better, a novel of clever sayings. More and more as the plot advances it is seen to be a somewhat perfunctory affair, which sits a little uneasily upon even the author. For example, he is at some pains to secure an invitation to a dinner-party for his leading lady, and forgets to have her present. The usual machinery of suppressed codicils, thwarted young love, mortgaged ancestral acres, is employed with the usual effectiveness. What is really unusual about the book, however, is the wit of the conversations. To these one recurs again and again after comfortably dismissing the story. So much of easy familiarity with letters, both classic and modern, does not often permeate the pages of a novel, and very seldom does the novel-reader find the ball of conversation kept tossing to and fro in such brilliant flights. That cynicism is pushed to a point almost disagreeable at times is quite true, and one reflects that perhaps the ingénue was just as well absent from the promised dinner. It is not, however, the unpleasant which makes the wit of the book. It appears here and there and is easily forgotten, while its cleverness leaves behind the sense of a shining hour.

Ossip Schubin's novel is readable, absolutely modern, the work of a note-taker rather than of a thinker. It is crowded with characters and with incidents. A species of modern show, this, which fills the pages: a sunny Sunday afternoon in a great city, when promenaders, old, young, gay, fair, disreputable, pass before the eye. One never feels the temptation to say, "Verweile doch, Du bist so schön!" but it is a sufficiently amusing pageant to while away an hour withal. The translation is made with great elegance and spirit.

'Miss Eaton's Romance' breathes the noblest motives. It is a tale of shipwreck occurring on the New Jersey coast in the presence of large numbers of the summer boarders. The shipwrecked, being conveyed to the boarding-house, become an incidental divertisement in the boarders' lives, and the book is devoted to the meals of the boarders in detail, and to the struggle to have each of the watchers by the shipwrecked get his breakfast, dinner, and tea regularly. When John has to go out, Burr goes in, and when both need a meal, the Doctor enters the sick-room; this is repeated through 300 pages. After the provisions are all exhausted, the author bethinks him to bring the old lovers together and to drown the villain, and the curtain descends to the breakfast bell's merry clang.

'With the Best Intentions' is a most preposterous book. No one would predict, on reading the rather clever character sketch in the first chapter, the depth of literary degradation that he is doomed to witness. A young wife on her wedding journey becomes jealous of an old friend of her husband's whom they meet by chance at their hotel on Mackinac Island. Aided by some unfortunate appearances of evil, and by a caricature of a mother, the bride builds up her jealousy into a great hotel investigation of the career of a woman before whose perfections and fascinations those of angels pale. The author's infatuation with this lady is equalled only by that of the young husband, two gushing women, and all the men dwellers in Mackinac, who fight (sometimes literally) under the standard of the maligned goddess. Although the goddess's mother dies under the hand of calumny, she herself spreads her white wings and flies to Newport, where lurks a hint of a compensatory marriage. The persecuting bride sinks into oblivion, scorned by her husband and all attachés of the opposing faction.'

A specimen paragraph describes the singing of "Nearer, My God, to Thee" by the hotel guests, under the auspices, of course, of the principal contestants in the *cause célèbre*. It begins in the parlor; then "the voices of old men and maidens were blended in holy rapture; young men cast aside their cigars to add deeper tones; children in their beds, the colored waiters in the far dining-room, fishermen in their craft alongshore, one and all, took up tune and words." Has the World's Fair Committee read this book? It certainly should find here a hint towards the colossal. The landscape and the historic associations of Mackinac Island are helped by quotations from Miss Woolson's 'Anne,' with whom we condole upon being made an accessory.

A LIFE OF DUPLEIX.

Dupleix. By Col. Malleson, C.S.I. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890.

THE career of Joseph Francis Dupleix is one of singular interest. He was a man of remarkable gifts, and gave abundant proof of them. But the only part of his work that was permanent was that by which his enemies profited. His own life was a lamentable failure; his efforts on behalf of France, which repaid him with such stupid ingratitude, serve only to constitute a striking instance of what some one has called "the might-have-beens" of history. He strove to create, and for a moment seemed to have created, a great French dominion in the East. Had he been better supported, India might have become French instead of English, and the history of two great states and an enormous territory have taken a wholly different turn.

Born in 1697, the son of the Farmer-General and Director-General of the French Company of the Indies, Dupleix entered the service of that company at Pondicherry, the headquarters of the French in southern India, eighty-six miles S. S. W. of Madras, in 1720. In 1730 he was appointed Intendant of Chandernagore, the settlement on the Hooghly, a few miles above Calcutta, which had been first occupied by the French in 1676, and which they still retain. Having shown his administrative capacity there by stimulating the trade of the place in an unexpected way, he was in 1741 transferred to Pondicherry, and named General Commandant of the French possessions in India.

In 1744 the War of the Austrian Succession, for which Frederick of Prussia was so largely responsible, broke out between France and England. Dupleix, who could count on little help

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from home, tried to arrange with the English Governor of Madras for abstinence from hostilities in India. The English, however, refused, and were made to suffer for their imprudence, for Dupleix and La Bourdonnais, the French Admiral on the coast, forced Fort St. George, the English stronghold, which is now generally known as Madras, to surrender. Dupleix had promised the Nawab of the Carnatic that when once Madras was taken it should be delivered over to him. The non-fulfilment of this engagement led to an onslaught by the Nawab's troops upon the French; and the defeat of his forces by very small French detachments in two conflicts was the first revelation of the incomparable superiority of drilled European troops to native levies. Following up his advantage, Dupleix directed an attack on the one stronghold which remained to the English, Fort St. David, near Gudalar, some sixteen miles south of Pondicherry. But the officer to whom he intrusted this enterprise proved incapable, a second attempt was foiled by the sudden arrival of an English squadron, a third attempt, made after this squadron had withdrawn, was foiled by a vigorous sally of the British garrison; and then, so far from pressing his adversaries, Dupleix was himself beset in Pondicherry by a powerful British fleet. Though not a soldier himself, his energy so inspired the garrison that the repeated attacks of the fleet and the land forces were repulsed till, after a two months' siege, the British Admiral sailed away to escape the approaching monsoon.

Then came, in 1749, the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, under which France bound herself to hand back Madras to England. The *status quo ante* was restored. But Dupleix had achieved two great things: he had inaugurated the policy of alliances between the European establishments on the coast, hitherto occupied only in commerce, and the native powers, nominally vassals of the great but fast-decaying Mogul Empire; and he had proved that European troops, properly led, were able to overcome immensely more numerous native armies. He had disclosed the same secret which the Athenians disclosed at Marathon, but which was not fully appreciated till the return of the Ten Thousand from the expedition of the younger Cyrus had written it in bold characters, that the undrilled and ill-led multitudes of an Asiatic host are mere chaff in the balance against a small force of disciplined civilized soldiers. This secret fascinated him. A vista of conquest and glory for France and for himself opened before his eyes. A question of disputed succession which had arisen upon the death of the Subahdar of the Deccan gave him an opportunity of pushing his schemes. He espoused the cause of one of the claimants, and supported him not only with a small French detachment, but with a considerable force of sipahis (or, as we call them, sepoys), native troops whom he had drilled in European fashion. As his reward, he received from his successful protégé large territories and the promise of still further gains.

However, the English had now been roused, and though there was peace between England and France at home, that seemed no reason why they should not espouse the cause of an adverse claimant and extend their influence and opportunities for trade by giving him military aid. But they proved no match for the skilful combinations of Dupleix, who, partly by the vigorous action of his generals, partly by his astute diplomacy, established in two years the virtual supremacy of French influence over the greater part of Southern India. A large cession of territory was granted by the new Subahdar of the Deccan to the French, and the title of Nawab of the Carnatic offered to Dupleix, who, however, prudently declined it. He was fond not only of the reality but of the display of power, but he perceived that he would not be substantially the stronger for this Oriental honor, and he may well have felt that it might excite suspicion and jealousy in France.

Only one thing was needed to the triumph of France, the submission or capture of the adverse native pretender to the Nawabship of the Carnatic, whom the English had supported. He had fled to Trichinopoli, and from that almost impregnable fortress was imploring the help of the English. Hitherto their somewhat half-hearted efforts had been unsuccessful. But the extraordinary success of Dupleix seems to have at length roused them, and they sent a small force to help to defend Trichinopoli against the much stronger native and French army which was attacking it. No one who has seen can ever forget the Rock of Trichinopoli. It is one of those huge, isolated, craggy masses of granite which rise here and there from the plains of southeastern India, its top accessible only by a long staircase, most of which is cut out of the solid rock, and crowned by a Hindu temple. It soon became the centre of a series of memorable campaigns, in which the French failed to capture the fortress, while the English, unsuccessful at first, began to add victory to victory as soon as they had found two really capable men to lead their troops, Stringer Lawrence and Clive. Dupleix did all that energy and resourceful courage could do to raise forces to stimulate his native allies to frame plans for the conduct of military operations. But, unluckily for himself, he had, or thought he had, no gift for leading armies in the field, and his plans were constantly wrecked by the incompetence or sluggishness of his generals. When the struggle, which had virtually become a war between France and England for the control of Southern India, had lasted more than three years, the French Company of the Indies, who found hostilities costly, and saw no corresponding return in revenue, became impatient. They had for some time wished Dupleix to settle things any how with the English, and had been roused still further by communications from the English East India Company, who assured them that their restless and ambitious Governor was the only obstacle to peace. Thinking that, as the Latin maxim says, they might properly take advice even from an enemy, they at last resolved to recall him.

In 1754 a certain Godehen was sent out to arrange peace with the British of Madras and to supersede Dupleix. There seems to have been no intention to humiliate the latter needlessly, nor was he ill received on his return to France. But Godehen managed to investigate and deal with the complicated accounts between Dupleix and the French Company in such wise as to deprive the latter of nearly the whole of the large sums which he had gathered, for the far larger part of these sums had been advanced by him to the Company for current expenses, or had been lent on the Company's behalf to native princes; and of all this Dupleix could obtain no part from his successor. Nor had he any better fortune in France. The authorities of the company put him off; the Ministers of Louis XV. neglected him, and, after ten years of continued disappointments, sinking deeper and deeper into indigence as his creditors pressed him more severely, he died, in poverty and wretchedness, in 1764, being then sixty-seven years of age. Seldom has a great man been treated with more callous ingratitude, for it does not appear that any misconduct or misuse of his powers for selfish purposes was ever charged against him. Clive and Warren Hastings were by no means spotless; but in their cases great services were allowed to outweigh errors. England at her worst has been less unjust than the despotic monarchy in France; but it must also be remembered that Dupleix, though he had shown gifts equal to those of Clive and Hastings, did not, like them, return triumphant and wealthy.

That his gifts were of the highest order can hardly be disputed. Untiring energy, inexhaustible resource, great dexterity in devising schemes, great tact in carrying them out, were united to a remarkable power of inspiring respect and confidence in those he dealt with. His failure may be ascribed to three causes. One was the want of personal military capacity, which obliged him to intrust the fulfilment of his plans to the hands of others. Clive could strike as well as scheme. A second was his apparent deficiency in the power of choosing the best officers. Several times, no doubt, he made happy selections, but more frequently his commanders proved unequal to the emergencies they had to meet. And a third may be found in his omission to make secure his position at home. Carried away by the brilliant vista of conquest which he saw open in India, he seemed to have forgotten the absolute necessity of conciliating the authorities in France and keeping them in good humor by remittances of money. Yet, after all, he would probably have succeeded but for the accident that the pistol with which young Robert Clive had tried to shoot himself in 1745 missed fire, and left the founder of the British Empire in the East to destroy the armies which had begun to conquer an empire for the French.

Of Col. Malleson's book there is not much to be said. He is an experienced bookmaker and gives a readable narrative of the campaigns, though in a rather slipshod style. His reflections are trite and repeated with an iteration which occasionally becomes tedious. Hardly anything is done to bring out the personality of Dupleix and enable us to realize what manner of man he was in daily life. Nothing, for instance, is said about his love of display and ostentation, contrasting with the military simplicity which Clive practised in India, nor are we told anything about his personal appearance, nor whether portraits exist of him, nor where, when, and by whom his diary (once or twice quoted) was published. If a narrative of events takes the form of a biography, some personal account of the hero ought to form a part of it. Our curiosity regarding the ablest man that served France abroad between the death of Louis XIV. and the Revolution, is left unsatisfied by this book.

Canada and the Canadian Question. By Goldwin Smith, D.C.L. Macmillan & Co.

However decidedly the reader may dissent from Mr. Goldwin Smith's political opinions, he cannot fail to be interested in this carefully prepared statement of his views on Canada and the Canadian question. Besides being possessed of the rare gift of a beautiful style, Mr. Smith has lived long enough in Canada to have acquired perfect familiarity with its social and political features, and he is, therefore, peculiarly well equipped for his undertaking. It is true that the natural bias of his mind, which tends towards distrust of democracy, and has a yearning affection for British standards of fifty years ago, occasionally leads him

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into what some of his readers will consider a misinterpretation of facts. But while these instances are of sufficient importance to call for comment, they do not seriously impair the soundness of his general argument or of his conclusions; and perhaps, in the discussion of such problems, the hard blows of the controversialist make for the best results as surely as the judicial calm of the philosophic historian.

Two-thirds of the book is devoted to a brief but admirably written account of the beginnings of Canada, of the French and British Provinces, of the union of the two provinces, and finally of the causes which led up to confederation. Here and there are evidences of the bias above referred to, as, for instance, when, in speaking of the defeat of the French by Wolfe, Mr. Smith says that England "should not be accused of blindness because she failed to foresee that the requital of this supreme effort on behalf of her American colonists would be their secession." Surely there is something grotesque in this allusion to the Revolutionary war as an unjust and ungenerous requital of past kindnesses! Again, Mr. Smith says that two generations have not sufficed to efface the evil memories of the war of 1812, and that "unprincipled American aggression" at that time counteracted or weakened any attraction that American institutions might have possessed for Canadians. But then, war must of necessity leave unpleasant memories, and is it true that all the aggression was on the side of the United States?

Nowadays the Irish question cannot be eliminated from the Canadian, or from any other English or colonial political question; and, Mr. Smith's views on the Irish question being of a very decided character, he loses no opportunity of expressing his dislike of the Irish people and of all who espouse their cause. He has a very poor opinion of Canadian politicians, and says of them that "unscrupulous craft and a thorough knowledge of the baser side of human nature have become their ideal of statesmanship." But he consigns to a still lower deep the British statesmen who "have leagued with the Clan-na-Gael and other enemies of their country for the subversion of the Union." Presumably this category includes Mr. Gladstone and all his followers; but their opponents do not fare much better at Mr. Smith's hands, for he declares that, in consequence of democratic change, the House of Commons, as a whole, is becoming "an anarchy and a bear-garden, incapable either of legislation or of government."

Again, in his account of the French Province and of the French population, Mr. Smith's anti-Catholic bias comes into play. He describes the ship of the Church, with the Jesuit at the helm, as "steering on a course opposed to progress and the organic principles of modern civilization." And yet, almost in the same breath, he warns British statesmen against free education, on the ground that the whole community is taxed for the benefit of a portion only, and that parental responsibility is extinguished. Fortunately, Mr. Goschen has succeeded in bringing even British Conservatives to the point of believing that free education is one of the "organic principles of modern civilization."

After disposing of the historical part of his subject, Mr. Smith proceeds to discuss the "Fruits of Confederation" and the "Canadian Question," the latter being defined as the question "whether the Provinces of the Dominion can for ever be kept by political agencies united among themselves and separate from their continent, of which geographically, economically, and, with the exception of Quebec, ethnographically, they are part." Mr. Smith's unfavorable view of the results of Canadian Confederation under the Act of 1867 is well known, and is here presented in vigorous and unmistakable language. Much of what he says, especially in regard to the low tone of political morality in the Dominion, is undoubtedly true; but here also, as in the earlier portion of the book, his case suffers somewhat from over-statement. For instance, he says that "political morality, and to some extent general morality with it, have been sacrificed to the exigencies of this artificial combination of provinces, and of an isolation of these provinces from their continent." But he entirely fails to show that political morality is now at a lower ebb than during the period before confederation; and if he believes that, after annexation has put an end to the "isolation of the provinces from their continent," the atmosphere of Washington will rehabilitate Canadian political morality, he is certainly extremely sanguine.

Perhaps the most important, and certainly the most obvious, result of Canadian confederation is the Canadian Pacific Railway. American travellers will remember to their cost what the Grand Trunk service was in the days before the competition of the new road revolutionized Canadian ideas of what a railroad should be. But Mr. Smith is opposed to the Canadian Pacific because it is the child of confederation; and he expresses the opinion, which not one Canadian in a hundred will share with him, that the Grand Trunk Road has done more for Canada than the Canadian Pacific. He claims that the latter road has "carried settlers far away from their markets and their centres of distribution, raised their freights, and, what is worst of all, deprived them of the advantages of close settlement." He takes no account of the new "markets and centres of distribution" which are springing up on the rich prairies west of Winnipeg; of the development, as yet in its infancy, of the immense mining resources of Sudbury and British Columbia; of the new commerce which is seeking the magnificent harbor of Vancouver. His indictment is almost identical with that which the English squires drew against railroads in the good old days before the Reform Bill, to which Mr. Smith looks back with peculiar fondness. Equally out of date is the quoted opinion of two English artillery officers who in 1866 prophesied that the Intercolonial Railway would be so often blocked by snow as to be useless for the transport of English troops to India. Any military man acquainted with the working of Canadian railroads in winter would certainly rather face the remote risk of such a blockade than the infinitely greater risk of a stoppage of the Suez Canal in the event of a Russian invasion of India.

As to the general results of Canadian confederation, there is of course room for much difference of opinion. Many believe with Mr. Smith that the prosperity of the Dominion would have been much greater than it is if free trade had been adopted instead of protection as the basis of the financial system. A small minority of Canadians may share his idea that the different provinces would have done better without confederation. But the recent elections show that there has been no marked change in Canadian public opinion on the subject of the tariff, and the still more recent adoption of the Canadian plan of confederation by the Australian colonies shows that colonial opinion is satisfied with its results. Mr. Smith is strongly in favor of some system of commercial reciprocity between this country and Canada, and he regards eventual annexation by this country as the manifest destiny of the Dominion. He considers that this would be the best solution of the question from the English point of view, because England, under the present tariff, has no longer any exclusive control over Canadian trade, and would be freed from many causes of diplomatic disputes if she withdrew politically from the American Continent. But though there is much to be said in favor of these views, it is quite certain that at present, both in Canada and in England, they are favorably entertained by a small minority only. The French population of Canada is especially loyal to the English connection. It has been said by an eminent French Canadian that the last gun in defence of British dominion on this Continent would be fired by a Frenchman, and there is no doubt that the French feel that by annexation to the United States they would lose the disproportionately large share of political power which they now possess. Desirable as it is that the present anomalous condition of trade relations between the two countries should be changed, and that the change should take the general direction indicated by Mr. Smith, there seems to be no immediate prospect that his ideas will be realized. Nevertheless, he is entitled to our gratitude for the fearless manner in which he has stated his views, many of which will not tend to the increase of his popularity in Canada; and, in spite of the defects to which we have referred, his book is a noteworthy contribution to the literature of the subject.

Later Leaves. Being the Further Reminiscences of Montagu Williams, Q.C. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

MR. WILLIAMS would have done well to resist the solicitations of his friends to continue the recital of his experiences at the bar. What he has here given his readers is but the lees, and the recollection of his former volumes will be too fresh for them not to be sensible of the falling off in quality. The fault is not in the style, for that retains its vivacity, but it is evident that the writer had told the best of his stories. We find almost nothing to which it seems worth while to call attention as especially entertaining, except one anecdote of Justice Maule—concerning whom all anecdotes are welcome. A person coming before him for trial, charged with an aggravated offence, brought forward a number of witnesses to his good reputation, and the Judge was asked to refer in his charge to this evidence. He complied in the following terms: "Gentlemen, I am requested to draw your attention to the prisoner's character, which has been spoken to by gentlemen, I doubt not of the greatest respectability and veracity. If you believe them, and also the witnesses for the prosecution, it appears to me that they have established what to many persons may seem incredible, namely, that even a man of piety and virtue, occupying the position of Bible reader and Sunday-school teacher, may be guilty of committing a heinous and grossly immoral crime."

We are very glad that Mr. Williams has preserved the admirable remarks of Lord Bramwell made at the trial of some trade-union officers for intimidating men who did not belong to their union in their search for work. They are a combination of pathos and good sense such as is rarely found. We mar them by quoting only a portion, but we cannot resist the opportunity of repeating the following sentences:

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"Now I put it to your own judgment to reflect what right you have to call on any man to throw his labor into a common stock with your own because he happens to be in the same trade. You have no more right to call upon him to do that than you have to call upon him to throw what property he has into a common stock. Depend upon it, it is wrong. If any reason can be given for it, it must come from those who assert it, not from those who deny it. But you must be wrong in thinking it a desirable state of things. If all the journeymen tailors ought to combine together, so ought all the shoemakers and hatters and agricultural laborers, and, in fact, every class and description; and so ought, by a parity of reasoning, all masters and all other persons who have got some common bond of union among them. And what would be the consequence of that? Would it be for the benefit of society at large? You cannot think so. The only way it would be for the benefit of society at large would be if the object of the common desire of what is called wealth were thereby increased by such an arrangement as that. But would wealth be increased? Certainly not; because everybody knows that the total aggregate happiness of mankind is increased by every man being left to the unbiassed, unfettered determination of his own will and judgment as to how he will employ his industry and other means of getting on in the world. You must know it."

During recent years Mr. Williams has sat as a magistrate at the police courts in East London, and has been very deeply impressed with the horrors of human life in those districts. His accounts of what he has seen and heard are graphic enough, and the sentiments he expresses do credit to his humanity; but he has little to offer towards the solution of the problem, except a proposal that Government should remove some of the manufactories without the city. It is very suggestive of the difficulty of the situation to learn that Mr. Williams is informed that "the roads to London are choked with destitute and semi-destitute persons hurrying thither to participate in the funds which they anticipate will shortly be forthcoming" under Gen. Booth's scheme. But as to Mr. Williams's suggestion, we apprehend that the language of Tacitus might be applicable—*Solitudinem facit, pacem appellat.*

Frederick Douglass: The Colored Orator. By Frederic May Holland. Funk & Wagnalls.

THIS biography is markedly superior to that of Wendell Phillips by the editor of the series of "American Reformers," to which it belongs. Its cultivated style and its evidence of laborious research among the sources especially distinguish it. Nor is Mr. Holland a thick-and-thin eulogist, though he constantly talks of "our hero" and "our black knight." Still, it may be doubted whether the work was called for, seeing that Mr. Douglass is yet alive, and that there have been three editions of his autobiography, of which the latest appeared in 1882. Mr. Douglass has, of course, been politically prominent since that date, and there was something to relate concerning him as Marshal of the District of Columbia and as Minister to Hayti—two offices filled by him with a truly poetic justice. His letter in praise of Mr. Cleveland, after the latter had removed him, in 1886, from the office of Recorder of Deeds for the District, is highly creditable to both parties.

Mr. Holland's candor is not left to be inferred. He is evidently out of sympathy with Mr. Douglass's political views since the war—by which we mean since 1877; as respects the tariff, for example, or force bills, or Mr. Douglass's opposition to "one of the best nominations made that year [1888] by either party for Congress, that of Col. T. W. Higginson." On the other hand, he undertakes to defend Mr. Douglass's ante-bellum political career, which involves putting in the wrong his old associates, the disunion abolitionists. In this vindication Mr. Holland is biassed by his misconception of the anti-slavery disunion policy, which was primarily a discharge of conscience from all complicity with slavery, and only secondarily a means to the abolition of slavery. The disingenuousness, too, and historical falsification by which the political abolitionists sought to evade the logic of the Garrisonian postulates, are Mr. Holland's by adoption, but have become simple naïveté, as one may see from his calling the Garrisonian view of the pro-slavery elements of the United States Constitution the "Southern view."

Mr. Douglass's breach with the abolitionists grew out of his starting a newspaper against their friendly dissuasion. Mr. Holland shows that their apprehensions were completely justified — that there were already in the field too many meagrely supported anti-slavery journals; that Mr. Douglass could not avoid financial shipwreck, however much patronage he might draw from the other journals; that he would be tempted, under these circumstances, to abandon his disunion views in order to find support among hostile political and sectarian abolitionists. All this, in fact, came to pass, but Mr. Holland imputes blame to the prophets, while giving a very inadequate idea of Mr. Douglass's animus towards those to whom he owed everything but his native talent for oratory, and no idea at all of his adroit employment of the *odium theologicum* against them. Selfishly considered, his journalistic step was advantageous in giving him a more settled life than that of an itinerant lecturer; but he could not possibly shine as a writer as he did on the platform, and one is left free to judge that his usefulness to the cause was very greatly diminished.

His political change, once made, was full of the inconsistencies issuing from the absurd premise that the Constitution of 1787 was an anti-slavery instrument. The Buffalo Convention of 1848, which Douglass attended, took the Garrisonian and "Southern" ground that slavery in the States was unassailable through the Constitution; but, unlike the Garrisonians, the nascent Free-Soil party had no intention of attacking slavery where it existed already, or might exist if new slave States should after all be created. Mr. Douglass, an ex-slave, eager to attack and overthrow slavery, pronounced this standard "low" (p. 201). The Free-Soil Convention at Pittsburgh in 1852 did not raise the standard in the least. Its whole policy was for circumscribing slavery, while Douglass (like the disunion abolitionists) was for extermination (p. 211). Nevertheless, he took the stump for John P. Hale, who was avowedly ready to give effect to all the pro-slavery clauses of the Constitution. In 1855 Douglass reproached the abolitionists to their face with holding disunion views which, "if carried to a successful issue, would only place the people of the North in the same relation to slavery which they now bear to the slavery of Cuba or Brazil"; yet Hale's election on the Buffalo-Pittsburgh platform would have left the North much worse off, since she would have held herself bound not only to let slavery alone in its own domain, but to return fugitives, to put down slave insurrections, and to give to slaveholders a disproportionate representation in Congress. In the case of Cuba or Brazil, none of these obligations existed. Mr. Douglass partly saw this himself when the Republican party was organized (p. 249):

"The objection to this movement," he said, "is the same as that against the American Anti-Slavery Society: it leaves the slave in his fetters, in the undisturbed possession of his master, and does not grapple with the question of emancipation in the States."

Of course it did not, since it held the historical, Garrisonian, and "Southern" view of the nature of the Constitution. Nevertheless, Mr. Douglass took the stump for Frémont. In 1860 he was still more disgusted with his political allies (p. 249): "The National Conventions held successively in Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, and Chicago have formed a regular descent from the better utterances [alias "low standard"] of 1848 at Buffalo." Nevertheless, after supporting a forlorn attempt to make Gerrit Smith a candidate for the Presidency, he took the stump for Lincoln, "with firmer faith and more ardent hopes than ever before"—but not in politicians.

Meantime he bore explicit testimony to the worth of the abolitionists whom he had bitterly denounced. In 1860 he wrote to the *Liberator* concerning the American Anti-Slavery Society (p. 279): "So far from working for the annihilation of that society, I never failed, even in the worst times of my controversy with it, to recognize that organization as the most efficient generator of anti-slavery sentiment in the country." In 1865 he supported Mr. Phillips in the division over the continuance of the society, when Mr. Garrison withdrew (p. 313). And only last September he said in Boston (p. 391): "It was they [Garrison and Phillips] who made Abraham Lincoln and the Republican party possible. What abolished slavery was the moral sentiment which had been created, not by the pulpit, but by the Garrisonian platform."

This review certainly greatly damages the pretensions of the political anti-slavery parties from 1848 to 1860 as respects their part, intentional or accidental, in the abolition of slavery. It also raises some questions as to the worldly wisdom and morality of a black man's joining them and abandoning the abolitionists; and perhaps, on reflection, will appear not to bear out Mr. Holland's censure of the latter in their treatment of Mr. Douglass.

The Septonate and the Centralization of the Tonal System. By Julius Klauser. Milwaukee: W. Rohlfing & Sons. Pp. 274.

THERE is at present a great spirit of unrest and dissatisfaction in the musical world in theoretic and technical matters. Although great progress has been made in the simplification of the means of writing and interpreting music, as well as in the theory of harmony, it is yet felt that much more remains to be done before the art of musical construction and instruction will have been reduced to its simplest terms. The Janko keyboard is now in the field, promising to halve the difficulties of playing the piano and to double the pianist's powers of execution; while among the theorists a conviction seems to be getting more and more settled that what might be called the anatomical analysis of music calls for analogous simplification.

Mr. Klauser's book is an attempt to show that the reason why the building is unsatisfactory is because its very foundations are unscientifically laid. Instead of the old scale system, which has the tonic at the base, he takes as the basis of music a septonate consisting of two scale-halves with a single tonic as a common centre; or, in other words, he holds that the septonate, and not the scale, presents the seven principal sounds in music in their fundamental position. "The septonate," he contends, "clears up and solves the leading

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tone mystery, presents this tone in its primal relation and position, and furnishes solutions of many old and perplexing problems, especially of those melodic and harmonic problems which have arisen in the upper half of the scale, and which are brought forward in current theoretical works." He introduces many other iconoclastic notions—such as this, that inverted chords do not exist; and gives new and somewhat arbitrary meanings to old terms, as when he uses the word harmonics (which is now understood to mean the faint partial tones that accompany fundamental tones in music) to designate parts of chords.

The author's exposition of his system has not convinced us that the adoption of it would bring about the musical millennium, although it cannot be denied that it contains many valuable suggestions, some of which may gradually find their way to general acceptance. There are some sensible strictures (p. 62) on the habit of confounding time with measure, and on page 71 it is clearly and suggestively shown how accent determines harmony. The author is familiar with the speculations of Riemann, Marx, Hauptmann, Hey, Faure, Spencer; he is evidently a man who thinks for himself, and no one who is interested in musical theory can afford to overlook his treatise. But it is not for theorists alone, for there is an introductory essay of twenty-two pages on "A Higher Education in Music," the repeated perusal of which ought to be enjoined on every musician and music teacher in the country by special act of Congress. If the hints given in this chapter, and similar ones scattered throughout the book, were followed universally, musical intelligence and skill would take a miraculous bound forward in a few years. Read especially page 25, where the greatest defect in the present educational system is shown to lie in the fact that pupils are taught music by the eye instead of by the ear. "As it is, the average pianist sees a note, sees a key, strikes it, and, last of all, hears it. According to the above remedy the pianist first of all hears mentally what he wants, and then sets about producing it in a rational manner." Among several hundred pupils known to the author, "there was not one that had ever heard or thought of *thinking* tones and of mentally constructing phrases." He makes the sensible suggestion that it would be a good thing if pianists were compelled to study without an instrument for a few weeks at a time. Vocalists will find many useful hints, as on p. 136: "Let every vocal student be on his guard if he grows hoarse after practising. This is the unmistakable symptom of incorrect practice and usually of an incompetent teacher; if such practice is continued too long, it means the wrecking of what might have been a good voice; it means more, for in this way the foundation is laid for many throat diseases." His remark that "consonants are the muscle of the voice" is very felicitous. Read also the strictures on p. 117 on the faulty common way of studying harmony.

Perhaps the most novel and striking thing in Mr. Klauser's book is his contention (pp. 18-20) that "there is no such thing as an uncultivable ear for music, so long as there is no structural defect in the organ." He describes his treatment of a boy who heard no difference in pitch within the limits of two and one-half octaves, and, of course, could not tell a concord from a discord. By an ingenious but simple method, fully described by the author, he taught this boy in four months to discriminate the intervals of the scale, to sing little melodies, etc. "I do not doubt," he adds, "that by similar methods Goethe, who could not tune his instrument, and Charles Lamb, who tried in vain to sing two measures of 'God save the King' in tune, could have developed an acute sense of tone and pitch." Here is hope for the unmusical legions!

Year Book of the Societies Composed of Descendants of the Men of the Revolution. By Henry Hall. New York: The Republic Press.

MR. HALL has compiled, in a beautifully printed book of nearly four hundred pages, the organization of the affiliated Societies of the Sons of the American Revolution in twenty-six of the States, with the statistics also of the National Society of the same name, and those of the similar associations in New York and elsewhere known as the Sons of the Revolution.

It appears that California took the lead in such organizations, having founded its society on the 4th of July of the centennial year, 1876. The different bodies under similar names are, according to Mr. Hall's statements, divided into two very unequal camps by the unwillingness of the New York Society of the Sons of the Revolution to be merged in the larger organization. The editor points to the fact that the Society of the Cincinnati has dwindled to a small and purely social body, exerting no appreciable influence upon the times even in the way of stimulating patriotism. He thinks this is due partly to its exclusiveness, since it was made up of officers in the Revolutionary Army and their lineal representatives by strict primogeniture, but partly also to its provincial and social character.

The lines of these later societies are, t must be confessed, rather vague. They receive descendants on either the paternal or maternal side from any soldier or sailor of the Revolution, or from "officials" in the service of the original States or colonies or of the United States, or from "recognized patriots" of the Revolution. They aim at keeping alive the patriotic spirit of the fathers, to collect and secure historical documents, and to promote social intercourse among their members. The proceedings of the State societies give evidence that political action and influence is also aimed at, with more or less distinctness of purpose.

A constituency so wide as these societies base themselves upon would, if all entitled to join were enrolled, embrace the whole American element of the people—meaning thereby the descendants, in both male and female lines, of the whole and of the half-blood, of the population of the country in 1783. The show of limitation or exclusion within these lines would prove illusive, if any general disposition in the eligibles to become members of the societies should be stimulated. Is it not pretty plain, then, that the real cause for the creation of such societies must be the old-fashioned "native-Americanism" that has its periodical revivals about as often as new generations come into the field of action? Is native-Americanism a force, politically or socially, upon which any one can reckon for active and persistent work? If it were, the directer and probably more successful way to organize would be upon an avowed political purpose. This, of course, means the recognition of the fact that the organization must remain a minority party, content to exert its influence as a balance of power, just as the Irish vote, or the German vote, is supposed to be used in that way, openly or covertly. Experiments in the past seem to prove that native-Americanism cannot be made a rallying point in any such way. A revision of the immigrant laws and the naturalization laws would be the extent of any probable activity in legislative or political directions, and such revision is as likely to be aided by the first generation descended from immigrants as by the third or the tenth.

For political purposes, then, the new societies are not likely to be strong, and whenever their members become inoculated with political ambition, they will begin to disclaim their Americanism as sedulously as typical politicians have disclaimed their honorary membership in the Cobden Club. For social purposes it may at least be queried whether the narrower lines of the Cincinnati are not more attractive; for what are social clubs if not exclusive?

Walter of Henley's Husbandry, together with an anonymous Husbandry, Seneschaucie, and Robert Grosseteste's Rules. The transcripts, translations, and glossary by Elizabeth Lamond. With an introduction by W. Cunningham. [Published for the Royal Historical Society.] Longmans. 1890. 8vo, pp. xliv, 171.

THESE four French treatises, which apparently date from the thirteenth century, all deal with the management of feudal estates. They contain practical instructions designed to assist in the conduct of ordinary affairs, especially the management of a large farm and a great household.

The most important of these treatises is Walter of Henley's 'Husbandry,' which teaches the lord of an estate how to husband his resources in managing the demesne or home farm, so as to derive most profit from the soil and avoid falling into poverty. The instructions are given in the form of advice by an old man to his son, who is informed how to spend his wealth, how to make an "extent" or survey of his lands and tenements, how to select and supervise servants, how to keep cattle, how to sow and manure the lands, how to sell the produce, etc. In short, every branch of rural economy is described. Concerning Walter of Henley, almost nothing is known. One manuscript states that he was a "knight who afterwards became a Dominican Friar." His book was long regarded as the best work on tillage. Hence many manuscripts of the tract still exist, and Mr. Cunningham gives a full account of them. It continued to be very popular until superseded by Anthony Fitzherbert's 'Husbandry,' which was published in 1523.

The second treatise in the volume before us is also entitled 'Husbandry,' the author being unknown. It deals primarily with the finances or accounts of a manor. It shows how the bailiff's accounts are to be kept, and how the lord can check them. It also enumerates the expenses and profits of an estate. The third treatise, the 'Seneschaucie,' describes the duties of the seneschal, bailiff, reeve, hayward, lord, auditor, ploughman, wagoner, cowherd, swineherd, shepherd, and dairymaid. The fourth treatise, 'Saint Robert's Rules,' is attributed to Robert Grosseteste, the well-known Bishop of Lincoln. It contains twenty-eight practical rules or maxims written for Margaret, Countess of Lincoln, about 1240, to guide her in the management of her estate and household. Most of the rules relate to the domestic economy of a great feudal household in the Middle Ages. Directions are given regarding the supervision of officers and servants, the care of guests, how to provide food for the table, how to sell grain, at what fairs to make purchases, how meals were to be served, how the servants should behave in presence of guests, etc.

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The four treatises collectively form an important contribution to our knowledge of the inner life of a mediæval manor. The work of editing them has been admirably done, many manuscripts having been collated. There is also a good translation of the French texts, and an excellent Glossary, which the compilers of the forthcoming Anglo-French Dictionary of the Selden Society will find useful. This Glossary, however, is cumbered with a large number of words—such as avantage, bouche, bref, cas, office, possession—that are used in their ordinary modern sense. The following additions or changes seem to be advisable: certeyn = a sum certain, a fixed amount; chapitre = article or head; dener = money; poyn = regulation or rule; provost (præpositus) = reeve. Mr. Cunningham errs in stating that "few prose specimens of Anglicized Norman French survive outside of the Statute Book" (p. xix). There are numerous specimens in Littleton's 'Tenures,' the Year Books, the Rolls of Parliament, and other public records; likewise, in local muniments, such as the Liber Albus of London, the Domboc of Ipswich, the records of Winchester, Leicester, Southampton, and many other towns. But these slight flaws are scarcely worth mentioning in view of the very scholarly manner in which both Mr. Cunningham and Miss Lamond have done their work.

Dust and its Dangers. By T. Mitchell Prudden, M.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890.

THIS little book may be regarded as complementary to the 'Story of the Bacteria,' which we noticed some months ago. That explained in popular language what those micro-organisms are; this shows how they are liable to do harm, especially to mankind, when dried and floating in the air—for the dangers here discussed are almost exclusively those of bacterial origin. Exaggeration is a common fault in popular books treating of scientific subjects, but this is quite free from it. Nothing is overstated, and in fact the average citizen who, in these latter days, may look upon all the food we eat and air we breathe as veritable traps baited with death, will rest easier when he learns how few of the little organisms are caught out of doors. But fewness does not mean immunity. It is as bad to be slain with the single bullet of an assassin as to be peppered with many in battle; and forewarning is, in part at least, fore-arming.

The danger upon which special stress is laid is that of infection by the tubercle bacillus, the consumption cause. We believe physicians are gradually abandoning the constitutional theory of consumption, in so far as that involves the doctrine of heredity with the "seeds" of disease necessarily implanted from the beginning, and are looking upon those individuals or families who become consumptive as having a better prepared culture-ground for such stray germs as may fall thereon. The effect is nearly but not quite the same; for if the seeds are kept out of the hot-bed, the death-plant will not blow, and if the most stubbornly healthy person is showered with enough of these micro-organisms, some will make a settlement. It is thus that consumption is contagious. The moral is to kill or avoid the germs, and to this Dr. Prudden's book leads up, and it deserves careful consideration at the hands of all of us. In his desire to be simple, the author, we think, has written down a little too much; but that is merely a question of taste. It would have been better, also, had the exact degree to which the microscopical objects are magnified been stated. "Highly" is not sufficiently definite, and a scale would add nothing to the trouble or the cost.

Teuffel's History of Roman Literature. Revised and enlarged by L. Schwabe. Translated from the fifth German edition by G. C. W. Warr. Vol. I. London: G. Bell & Sons. 1891.

SCHWABE'S second revision of Teuffel's well-known work is published in two volumes. The first volume, to the end of the Augustan age, has been translated by Prof. Warr of King's College, London, and the second is in preparation. The original work is well recognized as an indispensable handbook, and its characteristics are preserved in this revision. Of course, there is much new material in each succeeding publication (the present is a third as large again as the first), and Dr. Schwabe does not hesitate to differ here and there from the views of Teuffel, whenever his own judgment or the results of late research warrant such departures.

Prof. Warr has made his translation more valuable by additions, in the lists of editions and treatises, of many useful English books which have been loftily overlooked by the German editor. His translation is in the main a most faithful one, in the plain, straightforward manner of the original, and English readers will be very grateful to him for undertaking the task and carrying it through so promptly. His style, however, is greatly marred by a too close adherence to the German, chiefly marked by his employment of compounds, awkward in English and directly due to German influence. For instance, he talks of "art-poetry" (*Kunstpoesie*); yet he rightly renders *Kunstdrama* by "the regular drama." Among other harsh words is "well-to-doness" (*Wohlstand*). There is a perfect apotheosis of the hyphen in this book, but it is all in the same line of imitation of the German. Another offensive Germanism is the printing of Latin proper adjectives with a small initial letter, as *parthicum*. But all these are errors of taste, which do not diminish the usefulness of the book. We have observed only a few real blunders in translation. On page 99, "combated" is exactly the reverse of the meaning of *verfochten*, which here means "supported." On page 20, "subsisted" is not a proper translation of *erhielten sich*.

The book is well printed in two sizes of clear type, and even with its additions contains some seventy pages less than the German. The binding, however, is exceedingly flimsy and altogether too cheap for a handbook. Yet this first volume costs 18 shillings, while the price of the whole work in Germany, in a good strong half-morocco cover, is a trifle less.

Lessons in Astronomy. By C. A. Young. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1891.

THIS is a brief introductory course, without mathematics, for use in schools and seminaries. It might very well follow the home reading of Ball's 'Starland,' which is still more elementary, and precede Young's 'Elements of Astronomy.' It presents a chapter of definitions, a considerable account of the constellations, and the fundamental problems of latitude, time, and longitude in their most elementary form; then the earth, moon, sun, planets, comets, meteors, and stars. It is always a satisfaction to meet such a text-book as this, the work of an author who has not had to "read up" in its preparation. There need be no search to see if the statements are correct, for Prof. Young is an authority in his science; nor to learn if their presentation is in form well adapted for school use, for he is the most eminent teacher of astronomy in our country. To such an author a reviewer always feels thankful.

The chapter on the stars contains much of interest concerning variables, showing how clearly the changes in the light of these exceptional bodies permits their classification into several groups, and gives some indication of their condition or arrangement, although their physical features are far beyond direct sight. The rational quality of the book may be inferred from this sample sentence: "It is a natural question whether some of the small companions that we see near large stars may not be the 'Jupiters' of their planetary systems. We can only say as to this that no telescope ever constructed could even come near to making visible a planet which bears to its primary any such relations of size, distance, and brightness as Jupiter bears to the sun." The freshness of the book may be inferred from the paragraph on spectroscopic binaries—that is, double stars too close to be separated by the telescopic eye, but known to be double by the periodic displacement of their spectroscopic lines. The first star of this class was discovered at the Harvard College Observatory only a little more than a year ago. Illustrations are plentiful and good, except that the figures of nebulæ lack delicacy; the one of the nebula in Orion, from the photograph by Roberts of London, hardly does justice to the wonderful original.

George Washington's Rules of Civility traced to their sources and restored by Moncure D. Conway. New York: United States Book Company. [1891] Pp. 180.

IN the preface to this very neat little volume of nearly two hundred pages, reprinting 'George Washington's Rules of Civility,' Mr. Conway explains what the sources are, traces the probable method by which the Rules reached Washington, and embodies some reflections upon their influence in forming the young man's character. All this has a certain antiquarian interest, but it may be doubted if the labor thus expended upon "copy-book" material is justified by the result, seeing that the Rules were not George Washington's, any more than the geometrical and surveying problems in the same MSS. were his, and it would be quite as useful to trace these problems to their sources, so far as they may be regarded as formative influences. The Rules can never possess any of the interest that attaches to a plan of campaign, a summary of political correspondence, or even a scheme of farming Mt. Vernon, for something of the man's individuality and habits are shown in such records. Mr. Conway hints that political reasons have prevented these Rules from being better known; he remarks upon the absence of any religious precepts or references to women in them, while insisting upon Washington's "rather precocious admirations" for the girls in his school-days. This is "unimportant, if true," and rests entirely upon tradition. It was enough for Mr. Conway to have discovered the sources of these Rules, as was set forth in the *Nation*, No. 1301. We wish he had carried his researches one step further, and traced the so-called poems of Washington to their originals. These verses constitute one of the weightiest indictments against the good sense and judgment of the farmer, the soldier, the statesman, and the national hero.

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Decorative Electricity. By Mrs. J. E. H. Gordon. With a chapter on Fire Risks by J. E. H. Gordon, B.A., M.Inst.C.E., Director and Consulting Engineer to the Metropolitan Electric Supply Company. Illustrated by Herbert Fell. London: Sampson Low; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

It gives one a shock of surprise to receive a book on the decorative treatment of anything so new as electric lights, and makes one consider how much there is to do to tame them into things of beauty. But when we look into Mrs. Gordon's book, we are tempted to ask, If so little as this has been done, why write a book about it? The obvious idea of collusion with manufacturers disappears as we read and see that the present volume is the work of an enthusiast. Its substance is of the slightest, and consists, not of study of principles and methods, but of recipes and small conceits, as in most books on household decoration; things which, used once, may please, but are not simple enough for repetition, and if applied broadcast become as tiresome as patent medicines. The most attractive part of the book is the chapter entitled "Some Personal Experiences," which sketches briefly and freshly the labors, disappointments, anxieties, and successes that wait on pioneers. The naïve story of Mr. Gordon's superseded electric lamp, of the inventor's magnanimous welcome of a contrivance that extinguished his own, and the quiet tear of the wife over an invention smothered in its cradle, moves the reader to admiring sympathy. Mr. Gordon's chapter on fire-risks is chiefly occupied with pooh-poohing other people's statements that there are risks. Of the designs with which the book is illustrated and the drawings in which they are presented, the less we say the better.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ammen, Rear-Admiral D. The Old Navy and the New. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Anvers, N. d'. The Life Story of Our Earth. 2d ed. Thomas Whittaker. 40 cents.
Anvers, N. d'. The Story of Early Man. 2d ed. Thomas Whittaker. 40 cents.
Arnaud, Col. C. A. de. The New Era in Russia. J. S. Ogilvie.
Barker's Facts and Figures for the Year 1891. Frederick Warne & Co. 50 cents.
Boissevain, G. M. The Monetary Question. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Brentano, Dr. Lujo. The Relation of Labor to the Law of To-day. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Burton, W. K. Photographic Optics. The Scovill & Adams Co. $1.
Chansons Populaires de la France. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Cole, C. The Auroraphone. 2d ed. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. The History of Sicily from the Earliest Times. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $10.
Houston, W. Documents Illustrative of the Canadian Constitution. Toronto: Carswell & Co.
Janvier, T. Stories of Old New Spain. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Johnson, W. F. Life of William Tecumseh Sherman. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.
Kellogg, Rev. S. H. The Book of Leviticus. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Kirchhoff, Theodor. Eine Reise nach Hawaii. E. Steiger & Co.
Knowles, E. R. Songs of the Life Eternal. Boston: J. Stilman Smith & Co. 75 cents.
Kipling, R. Mine Own People. John W. Lovell Co.
Lewes, G. H. The Principles of Success in Literature. San Francisco: Samuel Drew & Co. 50 cents.
Lincoln, Mrs. D. A. The Peerless Cook-Book. Boston: Roberts Bros. 15 cents.
Loney, S. L. The Elements of Statics and Dynamics. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Lowell, Percival. Noto: An Unexplored Corner of Japan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
McAllister, W. Society As I Have Found It. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Meredith, G. One of Our Conquerors. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Mérimée, P. Colomba. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Moore, G. Impressions and Opinions. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Parry, E. A. Charles Macklin. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Parsons, T. The Professor's Letters. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Perry, Lilla C. From the Garden of Hellas: Translations from the Greek Anthology. United States Book Co.
Putnam, G. H. The Question of Copyright. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Réville, J. Etudes sur les Origines de l'Episcopat. Paris: E. Leroux.
Ribot, T. The Diseases of Personality. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Marie Louise. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Scott, Sir Walter. Marmion. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Sihler, E. G. Complete Lexicon of the Latinity of Cæsar's Gallic War. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Sims, G. R. Tinkletop's Crime. Chas L. Webster & Co. 50 cents.
Sonnenschein, W. S. The Best Books: A Reader's Guide. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $9.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America 1773–83. Vol. VIII. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stickney, A. B. The Railway Problem. St. Paul: D. D. Merrill Co. $2.50.
Story, W. W. Excursions in Art & Poetry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sully, J. Pessimism. New ed. D. Appleton & Co. $4
The Log of a Jack Tar. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

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